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ABSTRACT

This book contains 22 background papers or research studies, which were commissioned in 1990 by the Royal Commission of Inquiry, Newfoundland (Canada), to assess the delivery of services in primary, elementary, and secondary education. Part 1, "Historical Features," includes: (1) "A Historical Overview of Developments in Newfoundland's Primary-Elementary-Secondary Education System" (Lorne Wheeler); and (2) "The Administration of Newfoundland's School System: Past, Present, and Future" (Tom Pope). Part 2, "The Mandate of Schools," contains: (3) "Mandate of Schools: A Position Paper" (Lloyd Brown); (4) "Components of a Mandate Statement" (Sr. Teresita Dobbin); and (5) "Expanding Expectations-Conflicting Ideologies: Re-thinking the Process of Education in Newfoundland" (Dennis Mulcahy). The third part, "Trends in Education," is comprised of: (6) "School Councils" (Jeannie House); (7) "Community Use of Schools: Evolution or Revolution" (Tom Clift); (8) "Multi-Grading" (Regina Warren); and (9) "Distance Education" (Garfield Fizzard). The chapters in part 4, "Critical Goals for Education," include: (10) "Equalizing Educational Opportunity" (Charlotte Strong with Bryan Hartman, et al.); and (11) "Performance Indicators and System Accountability" (Robert Crocker). The fifth part, "Critical Issues in Education," contains: (12) "The Use of Instructional Time" (Alice Collins); (13) "The Changing Face of Teaching" (Eric Burry and Reginald Bonnell); and (14) "Native Education" (Frank Riggs). Chapters that comprise part 6 include: (15) "Governance and Administrative Issues" (Larry Moss); (16) "A Study of the Provision of Support Services to Schools and Teachers by School District Personnel in Newfoundland and Labrador" (Frank Cramm and Royston Keileher); (17) "School-based Administration: Changing Roles and Expectations" (George Hickman and Dennis Treslan); (18) "Curriculum" (Clar Doyle and Dennis Mulcahy); and (19) "An Examination of Critical Factors in the Establishment of Effective School Districts" (Dennis Treslan). Part 7 includes: (20) "Costs and Consequences: An Examination of the Potential for Consolidation within the Education System and the Associated Costs" (Harold Press). The final part contains: (21) "Attitudes Toward Denominational Education in Newfoundland" (Mark Graesser); and (22) "Public Attitudes Toward Educational Change in Newfoundland, 1991" (Jeffrey Bulcock). References accompany each chapter. (LMI)

# Our Children
# Our Future

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## Commissioned Studies

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EA 025 505

Royal Commission of Inquiry Into the Delivery of Programs and Services in Primary, Elementary, Secondary Education

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# Our Children
# Our Future

## Commissioned Studies

Edited by:

Leonard Williams
Harold Press

Each of the studies in this report was commissioned by the Royal Commission on Education. The findings of the individual studies are the personal responsibility of the individual authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Commission.

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## Preface

The Royal Commission on Education was appointed on August 6, 1990 to conduct an impartial assessment into the delivery of programs and services in Primary, Elementary and Secondary Education. The following mandate was given the Commission:

- to examine the current organizational and administrative structures for delivering school and school related programs and services at the provincial, regional, school district and school levels;
- to examine the extent to which school districts and schools can be further consolidated and the costs associated with such consolidation;
- to examine the nature and extent of the community use of schools, the school's use of non-school board owned facilities and the potential for joint funding of school-community facilities;
- to examine the extent of duplication resulting from the denominational system and the costs associated with such duplication;
- to examine the effectiveness of existing co-operative efforts within and across school districts and suggest where and how new initiatives may be taken in this regard;
- to identify any existing barriers to the effective, efficient and equitable delivery of programs and services, and to propose corrective measures and incentives;
- to consider the matter of accessibility for those groups and individuals who may not now be adequately served; and
- to investigate other matters necessary to realize this mandate.

At the outset, the Commission decided upon a multi-faceted approach in carrying out its mandate. Early in its work the general public was provided with an opportunity for extensive input. The response to this invitation to participate clearly demonstrated a high level of interest and concern for education in the Province. A total of 1,041 written and oral submissions representing 3,677 individuals and 384 groups and organizations were received. The submissions came from 173 communities and represented a broad spectrum of society, including parents, teachers, school boards, business and industry, churches, education and health organizations and community groups. In addition to the briefs, 128 petitions containing 8,787 names were received. As well, in order to provide a comprehensive perspective on those issues bearing on its mandate, the Commission undertook an assessment of major education reports and studies written since the last Royal Commission 25 years ago. Focus groups and interviews were conducted to provide additional opportunities for groups and individuals to address specific issues of concern.

Finally, a number of background papers and research studies were commissioned. These studies were undertaken by both the Commission's own staff and others having expertise in particular areas. The Commission defined each of the studies and, where appropriate, established an advisory panel to focus the research effort and to assist with its findings, analysis and conclusions.

This book contains a brief statement of each problem or research task given to the individual investigators followed by the completed study. The Commission is grateful for the co-operation it received from so many individuals and groups in the preparation of these studies and hopes that these works will be helpful to those involved in the development of education in this Province. The findings in each of these studies are the personal responsibility of the authors of the studies and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Commission.

## PART I

# Historical Features

The first two chapters of this report lay out the historical features and provide much of the context from which the education system of this province has evolved. Lorne Wheeler was asked to research, document and describe the major historical developments in the education system which led to the evolution of today's denominational system of education. In Chapter 2, Tom Pope was asked to provide an historical overview and evaluation of the efforts of educators to provide for a sharing of facilities, services and programs. Some of the questions raised included: What co-operative efforts have taken place? How have they been initiated and by whom? What were the original goals and have they been met? Who was involved and for how long? What financial arrangements were established? Has it been an evolving process? Has it been equal sharing? How have disenfranchised individuals been dealt with?

Chapter 1

# A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF DEVELOPMENTS IN NEWFOUNDLAND'S PRIMARY-ELEMENTARY-SECONDARY EDUCATION SYSTEM

Lorne Wheeler

## The Social and Economic Context of Education in Newfoundland

The education system which now exists in Newfoundland is in large measure a reflection of the geographic, economic, and social forces which have shaped the character of Newfoundland society. That can be said of any educational system in Canada, but it is especially true of Newfoundland which has been less subject to external influences on its life and education system than other provinces of Canada.

The history of Newfoundland's "colonization" is unique in North America. For more than two hundred years, England's official interest in Newfoundland remained purely economic and strategic. Newfoundland was never a serious prospect for colonization until the early nineteenth century brought a brief influx of settlers from Ireland and the west of England. It is from them that the present population is largely descended. The many waves of migration, before and after, which transformed Canada and the United States into multicultural societies passed Newfoundland by.

The people who did choose to settle here were left largely to their own devices, receiving none of the protection and help colonial governments traditionally gave to their subjects. In these formative years with no state or church elite near at hand to exert legal and moral pressures, Newfoundlanders evolved their own methods of social cooperation and survival in a harsh environment. A sort of independent "communal" life developed, especially in the outports, which had more in common with tribal culture than with the renaissance traditions of Europe. Each community became an extended family. Doors remained unlocked for anyone to walk in and be at home. Children had the freedom of the village and were the responsibility not only of their biological parents but of all other adults. The work of building houses and boats was shared by friends and neighbours. Elders held a special position of respect and authority for they preserved and taught the skills and art of the fishery and the folk culture so necessary to survival.

Life was far from idyllic. Everywhere, but especially in the more remove settlements, people experienced unimaginable hardships and deprivations which appalled infrequent visitors, some of whom wrote lurid accounts of both the physical and moral conditions under which the people lived. They witnessed a neo-primitive white culture from which evolved the unique traditions and fierce pride which more than anything else define Newfoundland as a distinctive cultural entity.

Many of the customs and the sense of community have left their mark on contemporary Newfoundland life. Identification with a community remains a potent experience for most Newfoundlanders. It is best expressed in one of the commonest phrases in the outport vernacular: "He belongs to Greenspond". One is never from or even born in a place, one always belongs to it.

Outport Newfoundland was remarkably free of the sectarian and ethnic rivalries which agitated Irish Roman Catholics and English Protestants in St. John's, by 1820 a frontier town bulging with newly arrived immigrants. Outside St. John's, both Irish and English settled in isolated ethnic communities close to fishing grounds along six thousand miles of coastline, and rarely came into contact with each other. While this pattern of settlement favoured the growth of a denominational system of education, since sectarian schools would not result in significant extra costs, the vast geography over which settlement ranged presented overwhelming obstacles to providing services in education and in other areas.

Education in colonial Newfoundland was fostered largely for religious purposes and thrived best where churches were able to establish clergy or support missions. St. John's and nearby communities on the more densely populated Avalon Peninsula led in the number of schools established by churches and affiliated benevolent societies. They offered free instruction in basic literacy to children of the poor. The small, more prosperous merchant and professional elite who observed fine class distinctions to the extent conditions permitted, paid for private tuition or sent their children to schools in England and the United States.

The wilderness environment in which most colonists lived worked against the spread of church missions throughout the colony. The distribution of population in small isolated communities made for small operating units and high costs in providing religious and educational services. Generations were born, lived, and died without the benefit of religious services. Schooling was unavailable to most in any form, and haphazard for the few who could sometimes attend the small number of irregularly supported missionary schools. The primacy of the fishery in the lives of the colonists offered little incentive or time for schooling. Skill in catching and processing fish could only be learned from an early age in fishing boats and on stageheads and flakes. Even young children were useful and needed in many of the labour intensive operations of the fishery and their work in the family enterprise was more important than attendance at school. An inhabitant of colonial Newfoundland who could read and write was a rare individual indeed.

The whole population suffered grievously from neglect. The British government proceeded on the assumption that its imperial laws were not really enforceable and that things were going along all right as they were. Under this dispensation colonists obeyed or violated regulations pretty much as it suited them. Widespread revulsion against these conditions turned St. John's into a centre of political agitation which caught the attention of reformers in the British House of Commons. In 1832, Newfoundland received a system of representative colonial government which neighbouring Nova Scotia, by contrast, had enjoyed sine 1758.

### Legislative Evolution of the Denominational System of Education

The government first began to take part in education soon after the establishment of a representative assembly. The first Education Act in 1836 established a public school system administered by local school boards of which the senior clergy in each district were ex officio members. Government's intent to foster a non-sectarian, public education system was clearly expressed in a 1838 amendment which forbid clergy "to interfere in the proceedings or management" of schools, and prohibited religious instruction, even the use of textbooks "having a tendency" to teach particular denominational beliefs.

The Act altered conditions very little. The population was almost wholly Anglican and Roman Catholic, and it was assumed by both groups that education was a responsibility of the family and the church rather than of the state. When the state began to bear some responsibility, it did so by the method of grants-in-aid, as was done in Britain at the time, rather than by taking control of education. The Legislature accepted only a moral obligation to share some of the cost. Local schools boards were expected to carry the major responsibility for cost, and all the responsibilities of management.

A public system of education under local control may have worked if Newfoundlanders had been able, from an early period, to devise and mature institutions of local government to manage local affairs. Instead, the colonial experience had fostered apathy and suspicion, if not hostility, towards any form of government, and few local economies could provide even minuscule financial support. The church was the only organized social institution in most communities. The clergy were often the only persons interested in education, and able to organize the contributions of labour, materials, and services which substituted for local taxation. Without the control of either church or state, or considerable higher government expenditure, it is doubtful whether the boards established under the 1836 Act could have maintained existing standards.

It was not these considerations, but friction between Anglicans and Roman Catholics on the same boards which forced the government to abandon public schools just six years after they were first established, and to create separate boards for Roman Catholics and Protestants. This was satisfactory to the Roman Catholics and, so long as the Anglicans were in the great majority among Protestants, to the Protestants as well. The grant-in-aid was then divided into two parts, Roman Catholic and Protestant, roughly in proportion to the population of the two groups.

The Act of 1843 marked the beginning of legislative provisions for the denominational system of education. Within a decade, Anglican Church leaders were lobbying for two Protestant school systems, one for Anglicans and the other for dissenting Protestants, who were primarily Methodists and growing rapidly. Doctrinal and organizational differences caused constant friction between the two major Protestant groups. But Anglicans most resented the Methodists' relentless pursuit of converts from Anglican congregations, and wanted their own schools to strengthen conformity to the tenets of the Anglican Church.

Not all Anglicans agreed with year another division of the grant-in-aid. Many feared the decline of already scarce educational opportunities if the meagre financial resources were subdivided among separate Protestant school systems. They argued that the existing dual educational system was well suited to the scattered outport population, and all the country could afford. Methodists opposed separation for the same practical reasons, but added a forceful criticism of sectarian schools which fostered petty rivalries "where social harmony is essential to social progress and prosperity". The view formed the basis of support for public, non-denominational schools which became the official position of the Methodist Church and its successor in Newfoundland, The United Church of Canada.

The general views of the Protestant population will never be known, but objections were sufficiently strong to delay legislative action for two decades. In the end, opponents of separation could not match the influence of the Anglican Church, with the result that in 1874 provision was made for separate schools for each numerically important denomination, and for church appointed superintendents to administer the largest school systems. The denominational system designed in 1874 continued with little change for a century. In the intervening years, separate schools were created for three new denominations, The Salvation Army, Seventh-Day Adventists, and Pentecostal Assemblies.

The Methodists who so vigorously opposed the denominational system could have withdrawn from the education field completely. But that was a real option only if the government took full responsibility for the management and financing of a public education system, which it was both unwilling and unable to do. Methodists, though favouring a public system, were understandably not prepared to send their children to religious schools operated by other denominations. They had been and remained prepared to share control with other denominations, but the Act made no provision for the joint management of schools, and the other major denominations were in any case adverse to such arrangements. Management of their own schools became for the Methodists and their successor an inescapable moral and legal responsibility, as it did for other religious groups who would have preferred the option of a non-denominational education system to the direct control of their own schools.

The 1903 version of the Education Act gave denominational boards conditional authority to set up amalgamated schools, but the authority was so circumscribed that it proved to be impotent. The first amalgamated schools, which were established some twenty years later for Protestants in the new industrial towns of Grand Falls and Corner Brook, were not sanctioned or regulated by law until the statutory provision was amended by the Commission of Government is 1943. Those eager to find early signs of denominational cooperation point to the 1903 amalgamation law. It is more notable for a clause which stipulated that the amalgamation provision could not be interpreted to interfere with "the principal of denominational education which is by law established in this colony". The clause continued to resonate in subsequent legislation, and in arguments that schools could exists only within the context of the denominational system.

The proliferation of denomination school systems which followed from the 1874 Act did not result in as much duplication as was initially feared. The population continued to be fairly well segregated along the coasts on a denominational basis. Seventy years later, after denominational school systems were well established throughout the country, there were 1165 schools in 1001 communities, but only 128 communities were involved in denominational duplication. The number of duplications which could have been avoided in a single public system was in reality less than 128, since several communities need more than one school, independent of the denominational factor, because of the geographic features of the settlements.

The Government in 1874 and for several decades after was hardly in a position to challenge church control of education. Without church involvement, local taxation or considerably higher government expenditure would have been necessary, but because of the low taxable capacity of the economy, these alternatives could not have maintained existing standards. On the other hand, denominationalism fragmented, however modestly, the efforts and scarce resources of both church and state, and thus accentuated the disadvantages of population size and distribution.

## Chapter 2

# THE ADMINISTRATION OF NEWFOUNDLAND'S SCHOOL SYSTEM: PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

Tom Pope

## I. THE PAST

### A Brief Overview

Historically, schools in this province were started by either churches or by different religious societies inspired by churches. The first school is reputed to have been started at Bonavista in 1722 or 1723 by a Church of England clergyman, possibly with the support of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. Other societies inspired by or later associated with churches also played a significant role in the early provision of educational services. Initially, the schools started by these societies were intended to function as non-denominational or interdenominational but for a variety of reasons they eventually became identified with a particular denomination. For a period of approximately one hundred years, the very rudimentary efforts to provide any measure of education to the small and scattered populace were largely associated with individual clergy and with lay persons seeking to express their Christian concern through the aegis of societies which had a strong commitment to the betterment of the lot of people.

Shortly after the beginning of Representative Government in 1832, there emerged a more focused conviction that greater attention should be given to providing appropriate education for the growing population. An Education Act passed in 1836 resulted in the provision of government grants to support schools which essentially were intended to be nondenominational. In reality though, many of these schools assumed a denominational character. In part, this was because many communities were of a single religious denomination anyway. In addition, there were individuals and groups, especially among the clergy, who sought to give schools a particular denominational slant. Throughout the next forty years the issue of whether or not schools should be denominational was played out in many forums, with many proposals, and for many reasons. Initially, the debate focused on whether the government grant should be split between Catholic and Protestant groups. This was resolved in the 1843 Act which provided for the establishment of Catholic and Protestant boards with the grant divided according to the representation of each in the population. Subsequently, disagreement developed within the Protestant group. After long and sometimes rather bewildering alliances, debates and conflicts, the Education Act of 1874 provided for three distinct systems for the provision of education services -- Roman Catholic, Church of England and Methodist -- with government grants begin split three ways. Two years later, new legislation made provision for the appointment of superintendents for each of these denominations. These superintendents were to assume responsibility for the general supervision and direction of all schools and the training of teachers for their denominations. In 1892 the Salvation Army was given the right to operate schools and eventually it too had a superintendent appointed. Much later, in 1954, the Pentecostals were recognized in legislation for educational purposes. The first Pentecostal Superintendent of Education was appointed in 1959.

The developments up to 1876, then, resulted on the establishment of the denominational system to the extent that the principle has been basically unchanged since that time. In fact, the denominational principle became so entrenched that at the time of Confederation with Canada in 1949, it was an issue in the negotiation of the Terms of Union and was ultimately given constitutional protection. This protection was reaffirmed in the repatriated Canada Act of 1982 and in the Charter of Rights and Freedoms of the same date. It is true that many changes have occurred in the system since the end of the nineteenth century, but these changes have largely been within the context of this denominational principle. The most substantial changes in recent history were two developments which occurred in the late 1960's largely in response to discussions associated with the work of a Royal Commission appointed in 1964. The first of these changes resulted from negotiation among the denominations and with the government in which the churches agreed to withdraw from direct involvement in the functioning of the Department of Education. The churches agreed to no longer have their own superintendents in the Department of Education but would carry out their mandate in education through agencies established outside the Department of Education. These agencies were to become the Denominational Education Councils of which more will be said a little later in this paper.

During the mid-sixties, the time at which these changes were being contemplated at the provincial level the Warren Royal Commission was in progress and much concern was expressed over the many small schools in the province. More than one-half of the then 1,266 schools were one and two rooms. School duplication was most common. Roddickton, for example, had four all-grade schools. Botwood had eight schools operated by six denominations. The Royal Commission was ultimately most emphatic in its condemnation of all such duplications. In particular the Commission was critical of the existence of two or more schools in the same community.

Such criticisms was not, of course, new. Dr. Levi Curtis, who was for forty years a dominant figure in Methodist education described the denominational system of education in 1906 "as having gone to weeds". At the time of the Royal Commission, however, the criticisms were falling on more listening ears. The winds of change were "picking up". Andrews (1987) observes that "it is difficult to determine where the winds of change began". That was clearly the case. It would seem, however, that they really had their origin in a different kind of system, namely the Amalgamated schools. The Education Act of 1903 authorized the establishment of Amalgamated schools in sparsely populated areas. Thus, the Amalgamated system was underway and the first such school opened in 1910 at Grand Falls, the specific reference to sparsely populated areas, notwithstanding.

Overall, however, school boards were very slow to take the advantage of the authority granted by the 1903 Act. With few exceptions, the provisions of the Act were seldom used initially by the established school boards except those in the industrial towns of Grand Falls and Corner Brook. In fact, up to as late as 1949, only slightly more than 6 per cent of the students in the province attended Amalgamated schools. Many believe that one of the reasons for this was that the Acts of 1903 and 1927 placed Amalgamated schools under the control of the school board in the area and or community having the majority of students.

Following an amendment to the 1927 Act in 1943, permitting the establishment of Amalgamated school boards themselves, there was a steady growth of Amalgamated schools. By 1965, for example, more than 11 per cent of the Province's students attended Amalgamated schools. The growth was such that the Warren Royal Commission reported just three years later that if the Roman Catholic students were excluded from the enrolments, the pupils registered in Amalgamated schools would amount to more than 18 per cent of the total school population.

The "winds of change" were certainly affected by the Warren Royal Commission which in turn was aided greatly by what might be described as the ecumenical educational thoughts of the Protestant churches during the mid and late sixties. At the time, the largest division in the Department of Education was that which administered the denominational school services. There were six (6) sub-divisions, one each for the five (5) recognized denominations (Anglican, Pentecostal, Roman Catholic, Salvation Army and United Church) and one (1) for the Amalgamated school services. The schools of the Seventh Day Adventist were administered by the Superintendent of Anglican schools. The Presbyterian Church, while not operating schools itself, was for education purposes aligned with the United Church.

Each of these sub-divisions was responsible for the administration of its own denominational school boards, schools, and teachers. The five denominational sub-divisions were responsible as well for the selection and certification of teachers. The Department of Education Act stipulated that the superintendents of these sub-divisions would have the following duties:

(1) Act as the official channels of communication between the Council of Education and their respective denominations.

(2) Administer the Department's business with respect to the boards of education, schools, boards of directors, colleges and teachers of their respective denominations.

(3) Act as chairmen of the Boards of Examiners of their respective denominations.

(4) Recommend to the Minister persons qualified to serve as members of the boards of education of their respective denominations and to keep a proper record of all such boards.

(5) Administer such of the following services as may be assigned to each superintendent from time to time by the Minister: curriculum, supervision, teacher-training, public examinations, audio-visual education, correspondence tuition, attendance and statistics, physical fitness and book bureau.

(6) Perform such other duties and administer such other services as may from time to time be defined by the Minister.

In the discharge of these duties, the Denominational Superintendents, along with the Minister and Deputy Minister, functioned as members of the Council of Education. The Council, under the Act, was "the authority for all education policy dealing with school boards, schools and teachers". As a matter of interest, it is noted that the Director of Amalgamated Schools attended meetings of the Council but was not officially a member of the body. The Presbyterians, Congregationalists and Seventh Day Adventist denominations were also recognized under the Act but were not represented on the Council.

In the meantime, there was, at the time of the Warren Royal Commission, much by the way of criticisms of the Council of Education. The essence of that criticism was a follows:

1) Each superintendent presented the view of his denomination at Council meetings and the decisions made, therefore, were not arrived at by a majority but rather by unanimous consent. This meant, of course, that policy which had been agreed to by four denominations could be prevented from being enacted by the use of the "veto" by one denomination.

2) Also, superintendents in presenting the views of their denominations, had to consult with five separate denominational committees, some of which had representatives scattered throughout the province.

3) Superintendents were also away from the Department and thus unable to attend Council meetings.

4) Decisions were made to safeguard denominational interest rather than to promote education.

In view of the above, nearly all of the major submissions to the Commission called for changes in the organization of the Department of Education. The Roman Catholic Church recommended that the structural weakness in the Department be eliminated. The United Church Educational Council expressed the willingness of the United Church to join with any other denomination or denominations in creating a larger and more fully integrated school system. The Diocesan Synod Education Committee of an Anglican Church contended that the administrative organization of the Department was no longer adequate. That Committee recommended a non-denominational reorganization of the Department of Education.

As well, other education agencies and many individuals recommended that the Department of Education be reorganized. Also, when the Commission looked at Alberta, Saskatchewan and Ontario along with England, Scotland and Holland, where other denominational schools existed, it noted the Departments of Education were not organized along denominational lines.

Thus, when Volume 1 was released in early 1967, the recommendations called for the Department of Education to be organized along functional lines and the role of the Churches was to be an advisory one to the Government with responsibilities in certain specific areas, namely:

(a) The development and administration of Religious Education programmes.

(b) The distribution of any grants that may be administered on a denominational basis.

(c) Assisting in the recruitment of teachers.

(d) Making representations to the Department of education concerning any educational matter in which it is interested.

(e) Working with and assisting denominational schools and school boards.

The Commission went on to recommend that responsibilities, such as those suggested in items (a) and (b) be provided for in law. As well, the Commission proposed that each recognized denomination and the Division of Amalgamated Schools establish committees of their own, with full-time executive officers. The Commission in making that proposal was well aware of the on-going discussions involving the Anglican and United Churches all during the early and mid sixties with respect to a joint effort in education. The Salvation Army joined these discussions in March, 1967. In fact, by June 1967, the Integrating Committee had completed a proposed set of guidelines for Integration. In September 1967, the Committee wrote the Minister of Education expressing the intention of including both the Roman Catholic and Pentecostal denominations in the discussions on Integration. These discussions were, however unsuccessful from the standpoint of Integration. Thus, on July 1, 1969, the 270 school boards were consolidated into thirty-seven (37) -- 20 Integrated, 15 Roman Catholic, 1 Pentecostal and 1 Seventh Day Adventist. Also, the three Denominational Education Council's were established as statutory bodies with the following legislative mandate:

1) Make recommendations to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council concerning the establishment and alteration of boundaries of school districts under the Schools Act;

2) Make recommendations to the Minister of Education concerning the selection and appointment of members of school boards under the Schools Act.

3) Make recommendations to the Minister of Education concerning the dissolution of school boards.

4) Administer and allocate capital grants for school construction.

5) Make recommendations to the Minister of Education concerning the selection, training and initial certification of teachers. (This was to be carried out primarily through the Council's Boards of Examiners)

6) Approve constitutions of school boards and forward these constitutions to the Minister of Education for approval.

7) Examine and study all proposed legislation, regulations and amendments to existing educational legislation and make recommendations to the Minister on proposed changes.

8) Advise the Lieutenant-Governor in Council on all educational policy which affects the rights of denominations; and

9) Develop and administer programs of religious education programmes for the schools of the Province.

With respect to the newly established school districts, it is important to note that during that very same year the Integrated districts were increased by one, namely Conception Bay South and the Roman Catholic districts, during the very next year, were reduced by three -- Port au Port West, St. Mary's and

Conche. Also, from the standpoint of the Councils, more particularly the Integrated Council, the Presbyterian Church became officially a participant in September 1969 and the Moravian Church joined the Council in 1977.

Clearly, the above changes were very substantial. It is, however, most important to understand that these changes were still consistent with the principle of denominational education which was basically established more than a hundred (100) years earlier.

## Cooperative Educational Endeavours

### Early Joint Schools

The first few years following 1969 were characterized by considerable growth. Enrolments were increasing; programs were expanding, and economic growth, relatively speaking, was strengthening. In brief, education, like other sectors of society, was in an expansionist mood. By the early seventies, however, enrolments had peaked. Rural populations were generally in decline. Urban populations were both growing and shifting. Areas like Mount Pearl enjoyed substantial growth while parts of St. John's experienced significant decline. Terms like declining enrolments, further consolidation and denominational sharing started to come to the fore, especially in rural areas. At the same time, there emerged a new type of educational arrangement known as the joint service school. At Plum Point on the Northern Peninsula at Bay de Verde in Conception Bay, and on Fogo Island in Notre Dame Bay the respective Integrated and Roman Catholic school boards decided to joint forces in the operation of schools. The results were that firstly, in August 1971, a joint service agreement was signed between the Humber-St. Barbe Roman Catholic and the Strait of Belle Isle Integrated School Boards establishing at Plum Point the first joint high school in the province. Secondly, an agreement was signed in 1972 between the Conception Bay North Roman Catholic and the Avalon North Integrated School Boards putting in place a joint service arrangement at Bay de Verde. In this instance the joint service arrangement involved both primary and elementary as well as the junior and senior grades. The agreement provided for a joint primary-elementary arrangement in one school building and a joint junior-senior arrangement in another. Thirdly, during 1971-72, a joint service agreement was worked out for Fogo Island between the Terra Nova Integrated and the Gander-Bonavista Connaigre Roman Catholic School Boards. A new school was constructed in the centre of the Island and when the school opened in September 1972, all 450 junior and senior high students on Fogo Island were in attendance.

Previously, in the early sixties, joint service or shared service schools, involving both Roman Catholic and Protestant school boards were built in Labrador City and Wabush. These arrangements, however, were more of a sharing of facilities than a delivery of school programs at the classroom level. Each school had catholic and protestant sections with common facilities. Each section however, had its own administration and was governed by the appropriate school board.

### More Joint Schools and Other Arrangements

Since the time of these early cooperative efforts, much by the way of rearranging schools has taken place between and among Integrated and Roman Catholic school boards in particular. Joint service arrangements were concluded with the signing of formal agreements in the case of Pasadena, Glenwood, Fogo Island (elementary), Springdale, Badger, Cottrell's Cove-Fortune Harbour, McKay's-St. Fintans, and Gambo. Other joint school arrangements entered into but not covered by a format agreement were at St. Paul's Inlet, Cow Head, Port Sanders, Sop's Arm, and Whitbourne. As well, other cooperative school arrangements were worked out by a number of boards. In many instances the two boards which had heretofore operated schools in the same or practically the same communities concluded that it would be in the best interest of education if just one school system existed. As a result, a one school system became a reality for communities like King's Cove, Lamaline, St. Lawrence, St. George's, Stephenville Crossing, Port aux Basque, Codroy Valley , and Shearstown.

In addition to these arrangements, there were substantial rearrangements of schools within districts. The Bonavista - Trinity - Placentia Integrated School Board closed out sixty-seven (67) schools. Likewise, a number of other boards reduced considerably the number of schools they operated.

In brief, the overall result of all of these rearrangements is that at present there are approximately 525 schools located in about 307 communities. In 257 (84 per cent) of these communities there is just one school system; clearly, a far cry from 1964-65, when there were 1266 schools in more than 800 communities.

## Cooperation In Other Areas

Beyond what might be termed "school cooperation", there are a variety of other types of cooperation, as well. There are, for example, nine (9) joint school bus systems. These systems operate about 400 of the appropriate 1050 buses in the province. They transport approximately 36 percent of the students bussed. In total, twenty (20) of the present twenty-nine (29) boards are involved with one or more of the other boards in transporting students.

Similarly, in the area of program deliver, more precisely, inservice education, there is both a sharing of personnel and facilities, albeit not as much as a number of boards would wish, Also, there is considerable sharing of itinerant specialist personnel. Ten (10) boards are involved in the sharing of educational psychologists, hearing and visually impaired teachers, and speech language pathologists. Two boards, namely Labrador West Integrated and Labrador Roman Catholic share the services of a program coordinator.

Several boards cooperate in the joint purchase of various supplies like paper, for example. Other boards have joint snow clearing contracts, joint fuel contracts, and joint maintenance and cleaning contracts. A few boards even cooperate in the area of energy conservation. The Computerized Energy Efficiency Program of Terra Nova Cape Freels at Gander, for example, is providing for the efficient use of the electricity in the Pentecostal high school at Grand Falls.

Another area of cooperation is the two high schools in a community offering high school programs for all students. Theoretically, every student in any community should have access to courses in another school that his/her school does not offer, and schools should plan course offerings with that in mind. Part of that planning is to ensure that some courses are not duplicated for a very small number of students while other courses are not offered at all. In that regard, cooperative efforts have already begun. For example, such an arrangement was put in place last year at Harbour Breton and at present, discussions are on-going in other parts of the province, for example, at Stephenville, Gander and Baie Verte.

## Advantages and Effectiveness of Joint Schools

Overall, the advantages cited for joint school arrangements include:

(1) Improved school facilities,
(2) Additional specialist teachers for all students,
(3) Students are able to do the religious education courses of their own faith,
(4) A greater choice of courses for high school students,
(5) High school teachers generally responsible for a small number of courses,
(6) Class sizes are generally smaller,
(7) Multi-grading is reduced,
(8) Additional funds for specialist facilities,

(9) A larger number of program personnel to work with teachers,

(10) More opportunities for professional development,

(11) Increased cooperation between/among the communities involved.

It is reasonable to suggest that the extent to which each of the above advantages has been achieved varies from school to school. It is also reasonable to suggest that each of these advantages has been achieved to a certain degree in each of the joint school arrangements. By extension, therefore, it can be assumed that the learning opportunities available to students have been enhanced.

Various studies have, over the past few years, given support to these views. *The Small Schools Study Project* (1987), for example, concluded that joint service schools were operating in a manner which was quite satisfactory to the boards, parents, teachers, and students involved. As well, the report, *Building on Our Strengths: Report of the Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment* (1986) referred to the "superior services" in these schools as opposed to those which would otherwise be the case. Moreover, Harte's thesis, *The Joint Service School: A Study in Interdenominational Cooperation in the Educational System of Newfoundland and Labrador* (1989) is most complimentary. Harte did an extensive analysis of four joint service arrangements. His study showed a fairly widespread support for and a level of satisfaction with these schools. Also, the *Mediators Report on Schooling in St. Fintan's - McKays* (1990) concluded that the St. Fintan's - McKays area would "... benefit spiritually, educationally, and socially ..." from a joint school arrangement.

## Further Support for Cooperation

Certain initiatives and several reports during the 1980's spoke to the need for a furthering of cooperative school arrangements. The Denominational Education Councils adopted in 1982 a policy statement entitled *Development of Cooperative Educational Services*. The overall thrust of that statement was one of support for joint service arrangements. Secondly, the statement included the steps to be followed in the establishment of cooperative school arrangements. In addition, the Councils, approved at the same time a policy statement entitled, *Provision of Appropriate Religious Education Programmes*. The focus of that statement was the offering of the appropriate religious education programs to students who attend schools not of their own denominations. Like that of the policy statement on cooperation that too has produced very good results. In addition to the joint service schools, there are twelve other schools which offer two religious education programs.

Also, *The Small School Study Project* (1987) contained two specific recommendations directed at furthering cooperative school endeavours. The first of these called upon all agencies to encourage joint school arrangements. The second included distance guidelines provided schools were accessible by road. Moreover, both the reports on Integrated and Roman Catholic school district boundaries, namely, *School District Boundaries Revisited* (1987) and *Educational District Boundaries: A Framework for the Future* (1988), respectively, also urged, indeed recommended, a number of cooperative educational endeavours. The latter report stated that in every district visited there was considerable interest in interdenominational cooperation and that "... evidence was provided regarding the workability of this approach". The report concluded that interdenominational cooperation "... is necessary to promulgate the long-term interests of denominational education as well as the educational interest of students in rural areas of the province". (P. 30-31) Again, Harte in his study, after reporting upon "... fairly widespread support for and level of satisfaction with joint service schools" points out "... that joint service arrangements provide a reasonable and acceptable approach to improving educational facilities and services in sparsely populated areas of Newfoundland and Labrador". (P. 111)

In addition to the above, the report, *Financing Greater Equality and Excellence in the Newfoundland School System: Report of the Task Force on Educational Finance* (1989) made a specific recommendation to the Denominational Education Councils aimed at promoting cooperative educational endeavours. Prior to that recommendation, however, the Councils took another step in furthering greater cooperation. In April 1989, the Councils established a joint committee with a view to developing a model of systematic cooperation between and among school boards of the province. As a result of the work of that committee, each Council adopted in 1990 a new policy statement which gives further support to cooperative educational endeavours which result in improved programme offerings for the students. The policy includes firstly, the principles governing cooperation, secondly, potential areas of cooperation and thirdly, the role of the Councils in facilitating cooperation. In addition, the policy outlines the role of school boards in furthering cooperative school endeavours.

## School District Consolidations

Another cooperative endeavour in which the Integrated Education Council has been most active is school district consolidation. As early as 1972, the Council put in place a Committee to examine the feasibility of larger administrative units. That committee functioned for several years and one of the results of its work was some rearrangements of the boundaries of the Vinland, Strait of Belle Isle and Labrador East Integrated School Districts.

In 1982, another committee was appointed to consider once again the boundaries of the same three districts. That committee recommended an inter-denominational district be established for central and southern Labrador and that the Vinland and Strait of Belle Isle Districts be consolidated. These recommendations were not, however, acceptable to the different denominational groups. Neither did they win the support of the school boards involved. Consequently, the recommendations were not implemented. Meanwhile, the committee continued its work only this time its mandate included the districts of Burgeo and Ramea. Subsequently, the Committee reported that because of factors such as declining enrolments and changing communication patterns, the whole province as opposed to certain districts needed to be studied. The committee recommended the appointment of a special Task Force.

As a result, in May 1986, the Integrated Education Council appointed a two-person Task Force. The terms of reference for this Task Force were as follows:

(1) To examine the boundaries of Integrated school boards with a special emphasis on those boards with either present enrolments of less than 2,000 students or with beginning classes of less than 200 students.

(2) To make recommendations with respect to future district boundaries.

(3) To begin its work on the west and southwest sections of the Province with the view perhaps of having at the time of the Interim Report, firm recommendations with respect to the Ramea and Burgeo Boards.

The Task Force went about its assignment and in its report *School District Boundaries Revisited: Report of the Task Force on Integrated School District Boundaries* made four specific recommendations:

(1) That the districts of Burgeo and Ramea be consolidated with Bay of Islands-St. George's District at the earliest possible date.

(2) That the St. Barbe South and Deer Lake Districts be consolidated.

(3) That the Cape Freels and Terra Nova Districts be consolidated.

(4) That the Strait of Belle Isle and Vinland districts be consolidated.

In addition to the above recommendations calling for specific boundary changes, the Task Force recommended for the Bay D'Espoir-Hermitage-Fortune Bay District that the Integrated Education Council consult with the Catholic Education Council with a view to adopting a co-operative arrangement whereby one board could administer, especially for instructional purposes, all schools in the area. The committee made a somewhat similar suggestion for Labrador in that it also recommended:

> The Integrated Education Council consult with the Catholic Education Council with a view to working out a co-operative arrangement whereby all the Integrated and Roman Catholic schools in Labrador East could be administered by one board and all the schools in Labrador West by another.

With respect to these recommendations, the Council is pleased to state that the first four consolidations are completed. The recommendation having to do with the Bay D'Espoir Board was pursued and a proposal along the lines suggested by the Task Force was made to the Catholic Education Council. The proposal, however, was not accepted. The recommendation regarding Labrador was not addressed in view of Catholic Education Council appointing its own Task Force on school district boundaries in 1987.

Further to Bay D'Espoir, the Task Force advised that should the cooperative proposal not materialize, then the District should be consolidated with the Exploits Valley Integrated School District as soon as its enrolment fell below 1500. To date, the enrolment in the Bay D'Espoir District has not fallen to that Level. Nevertheless, the Integrated Council has in conjunction with the Bay D'Espoir and Exploits Valley Boards developed a proposal for the establishment of the Bay D'Espoir-Exploits Valley Integrated School District. That proposal, which is unique to the large geographic area to be served, has found favour with both Boards and the Council. In brief, the proposal calls for a decentralized model in both the delivery of programme support services and governance. The model includes the regional office in Grand Falls from which the District will be administered and serviced overall. To assist in that process, on area office will be maintained at English Harbour West. In the Exploits Valley section of the District, programme support services in the basic academic areas of the curriculum and special education will be provided from the regional office. Similarly, the same subject areas in the Bay D'Espoir section of the District will be supported from the area office at English Harbour West. Support services for areas like fine arts, learning resources, hearing and visually impaired and psychological services will be provided to the whole District from the regional office in Grand Falls.

To assist in the governance of the new District, the model makes provision for what is referred to as an Area Education Council for the Bay D'Espoir section of the District. That Council will be made up of the trustees on the Board from the Bay D'Espoir area. The mandate duties and authority of the Area Council have been stipulated.

The overall rationale for the Area Education Council is found firstly, in the fact that the Bay D'Espoir area of the new District is a distinct and separate piece of geography from that of Exploits Valley. Secondly, the schools in the area are located in communities that sometimes "do things differently". Thirdly, the Council will assist the Board in reflecting the wishes and desires of the students and parents of the area. Fourthly, the Council will foster, on the part of Bay D'Espoir, a greater sense of ownership for what is happening educationally in its area. As for the business administration of the District, it will be centralized at the regional office.

One further recommendation of the Task Force was that a number of other school districts be studied not later than September 1992. The Integrated Council had every intention of proceeding with that study but did not do in view of the terms of reference of the Royal Commission.

In addition to the Integrated Council, the Roman Catholic Council has also been active in the area of school district boundaries. In 1970, less than one year after consolidation, the number of Roman Catholic districts were reduced to twelve (12). Three very small districts -- Port au Port West, St.

Mary's and Conche -- become parts of three larger districts.

In the late 1970's, the Catholic Education Council established a Special Boundaries Committee to review the then existing boundaries and to make recommendations. That committee did not perceive the need for any major boundary changes. It did, make eight (8) recommendations the most significant of which seemingly was that the Roman Catholic School Board for Labrador be divided into two districts -- Labrador East and Labrador West. Just two (2) of the eight (8) recommendations were ultimately accepted, namely that of Humber-St. Barbe Board excluding the Bay D'Espoir area and the Gander-Bonavista including the Bay D'Espoir area.

The next attempt on the part of the Catholic Education Council was the appointment in 1987 of a three-member committee to study the boundaries of Roman Catholic School districts. The terms of reference for that Committee were as follows:

(1) To examine the boundaries of Roman Catholic School districts of Newfoundland and Labrador in light of the essential mandate of Catholic Education, the Schools Act and any other relevant education legislation, the Aims of Education for Newfoundland and Labrador and recent developments in education generally in this Province eg., declining enrolments, expansion of school programs and educational services, etc.

(2) To examine recommendations from the recent Integrated Education Council Boundaries Report (School District Boundaries Revisited) which refer to possible future sharing/co-operation among denominational School Boards of the Province.

(3) To examine new and different models of governance which our educational system might follow.

(4) To prepare a Report and Recommendations for the Catholic Education Council and to submit same to the Council by March 1, 1988.

The Committee proceeded with this mandate and submitted its report, *Educational District Boundaries: A Framework for the Future* in February, 1988. The report contained twelve (12) immediate recommendations and twenty-three (23) long-range recommendations.

Since the receipt of that report, the Catholic Education Council has pursued school district realignment in a substantial way. As a result, one of the immediate recommendations, that is, that of Bay St. George and Port au Port School Districts have been consolidated. In addition, come July 1, 1991, the Placentia-St. Mary's, Conception Bay Centre and Conception Bay North School Districts will also be consolidated. That, however, was not one of the recommendations of the Committee.

The Pentecostal Council also commissioned a study of its boundaries in 1988. The Pentecostal Board covers the whole Province and to date no change has been made.

From the above, it is clearly evident that the Education Councils are committed to the establishment of larger school districts. As a result of efforts of the Integrated and Roman Catholic Councils, that come July 1, 1991, there will be just sixteen (16) Integrated and nine (9) Roman Catholic school districts, down by eight(8) boards in the last five (5) years.

## Future Potential and Impediments to Cooperation

Notwithstanding the good progress to date, much still remains to be done in the area of cooperative educational endeavours in general and joint schools in particular. There are still approximately thirty (30) communities with potential within for joint service schools, Hawkes Bay, for example, has both a Pentecostal and Integrated school. Pouch Cove has both an Integrated and Roman Catholic school. There are also approximately thirty (30) communities between and among which potential exists for joint service schools across denominational lines. Jacques Fontaine-St. Bernards and Woodstock-Pacquet would be just four examples. In addition, there are approximately thirty-seven (37) areas where potential exists for more consolidations along denominational lines. Examples would include: Centreville-Wareham-Trinity; Lance au Clair-Forteau-Lance au Loup; Stephenville Crossing-St. George's-Flat Bay; Norris Point-Rocky Harbour. There is of course some overlap among the community groupings listed. Nevertheless, they do confirm the potential for further cooperative educational endeavours.

There are at present two major impediments to cooperative endeavours both along and across denominational lines. The first of these is the reactions of the affected communities, themselves. Generally, communities do not take kindly to any attempt to rearrange their schools, the best educational interest of the children not withstanding. Recall the court challenge from Newtown, four years ago. Note the struggle at McKays and St. Fintans last year. Witness the reaction of both Lance au Clair and St. Carols a few weeks ago when it became known their school board was about to consider the closures of their schools.

The second impediment is the lack of capital funds to effect the necessary renovations and or extensions that are frequently needed to facilitate either school consolidations or joint school arrangements. The Deer Lake-St. Barbe South Board, for example, wishes to consolidate three small schools in the White Bay section of its district but before it can do so, $1,834,000 must be allocated for a new building. Avalon North Integrated needs $7,184,760 to erect a school which will close out three, possibly four junior and senior high schools in the Upper Trinity South area. The Day D'Espoir Integrated Board needs $1,795,000 to make the elementary building at English Harbour West into an all-grade school and in so doing close out the high school in that community. Terra Nova-Cape Freels and Gander-Bonavista-Connaigre have need for $2,355,000 at Gambo so that the present elementary school can become the joint service all-grade school for that town. The Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia Integrated and Gander-Bonavista-Connaigre Boards have need for $4,500,000 to construct a joint high school at Lethbridge. That school will house the high school students from Bunyan's Cove to Princeton.

The above are, of course, just a few examples of the many millions of dollars necessary to bring about the maximum in school consolidation and school sharing in our province. We believe the record to date shows clearly that the Councils have the will to cooperate, the community struggles along the way, notwithstanding. What is now needed more than anything else is the financial wherewithal to proceed further.

With respect to potential for cooperative endeavours at the district levels clearly the potential is there, both along and across denominational lines. The Councils remain committed to larger school board units and the basis for that commitment includes the following:

(1) Larger districts offer a wider range of student programs and services.

(2) Larger districts offer more consultative services to meet the individual needs of teachers.

(3) Larger districts make more efficient use of economic resources. More use can be made of expensive facilities and teacher resources.

(4) Larger districts bring about greater equality of educational opportunity for all students.

(5) Larger districts generally results in higher student achievement, broader educational programs and extra-curricular activities as well as greater availability of professional services for both students and teachers.

The establishment of larger school districts over the past five years have indeed been a significant accomplishment. In the interest of continued success in that area, two basic understandings must prevail, namely:

(1) Recommendations concerning the establishment of school districts originate with the Denominational Education Councils.

(2) Incentives must be provided, including:
  - (i) staff protection for an interim period,
  - (ii) start-up funding, and
  - (iii) the unique needs of each new district from a program support standpoint must be addressed.

These two understandings constitute the first steps in bringing about additional district consolidations which the Councils perceive are needed in our province.

## PART II

# The Mandate of Schools

There are conflicting views on what the *de facto* role of schools is or should be. Children with special needs are no longer separated from school life but have been moved directly into the mainstream. Schools have been assigned broader responsibilities which includes the socialization of children for a society far more complex than before. Some argue that schools are being assigned responsibilities well beyond the realm of education and in areas which should be the responsibility of other agencies. The result is that there is confusion among educators and the public at large about what schools should do or are capable of doing. Uncertainty about the role of schools, ergo the role of educators, has fuelled greater diversity and misunderstanding.

Lloyd Brown, Sr. Teresita Dobbin and Dennis Mulcahy were each asked to reflect on the changing roles and responsibilities of schools and propose guiding principles for defining a school mandate for the future. Part II of this report provides alternative views on the basic elements of a mandate.

Critical questions concerning the changing mandate of schools were raised: What are the mandates of schools as outlined in other jurisdictions? Are there common principles upon which they are based? What are the common elements found in mandate statements? How important is an understanding of the mandate to the vitality and productivity of schools? What should be the mandate of schools in this province?

### Chapter 3

## MANDATE OF SCHOOLS: A POSITION PAPER

Lloyd Brown

The purpose of this paper is threefold: to discuss some issues in modern education, to use the discussion to specify the mandate of schools in Newfoundland, and, finally, to draw some implications for the delivery of education in the province.

There is confusion about the role of the school in Newfoundland society, a confusion that reflects a plurality of views about society, people, institutions, and organizations, views that might be characterized as modernism.

### Issues in Modern Education

#### Secularism

Holmes (1984) argues that the "central characteristic of educational modernism is secularization" (p. 24. This secularization of education takes two forms. First, it is revealed in the exclusion of Christian culture from schools. For example, Gideones may not place Bibles in some Ontario schools. In 1988 the Supreme Court of Ontario schools. In 1988 the Supreme Court of Ontario ruled that religious exercises prescribed for the opening or closing of the schools of the Respondent School Board were an infringement on the freedom of religion and conscience guaranteed by the Charter of Rights and Freedoms. Similarly, in 1988 in British Columbia the Supreme Court ruled the School Act, requiring schools to be opened by Scriptural readings and the Lord's Prayer, to be constitutionally invalid. In 1990 the Supreme Court of Ontario ruled that religious education courses taught in the elementary schools of Elgin County (a county whole population, according to the 1981 census, is 90% Christian background), although they contained stories from other world religions, were indoctrination, and, therefore, infringed the Canadian Charter of rights and Freedoms, anderson (1990), a lawyer, states the implications of this ruling: "This decision ... appears to go a long way toward complete separation of church and state as is the rule under the American constitution" (p. 29). In the United States the courts have struck down school prayer, religious symbolism, and religious practices in the classroom. As a result, Grant (1988) points out, "morality is (regarded) solely an individual matter" (p. 189).

Secularization is also evident in the growing reticence of our society to speak of any human behaviour as right or wrong; to do so is frequently to be accused of being coercive, authoritarian. From the point of view of secularism, morality doesn't exist or is purely personal. Tom some, morality doesn't exist because they regard anti-social behaviour as a psychological problem, not a moral one; and they also regard the solution to the problem to be a therapeutic one. Grant (1988) sums it up this way: "it a student gets in trouble, it is regarded as a psychological problem to be dealt with within a therapeutic relationship rather than (as) as a failure ... to morally educate" (p.185).

Those who regard morality as personal have adopted "values clarification" as a form of moral education. Values clarification is concerned only with the clarification of one's personal values. It is meant to show students that their values may not be the same as those of others. Its position is that values are relative, that what is right for one person may not be right for another. It has no place for transcendent, traditional values, has no sense of the common good Holmes' (1984) examination of the goals of education in Ontario shows the values clarification view to be pervasive. One of the goals, for example, states that students should develop "values related to personal, ethical, or religious beliefs" (p. 25). Holmes rightfully points out that " the ministry is indifferent to the particular values developed" (p. 25). What seems to matter is the process by which students may be helped to develop their own values; the values themselves seem unimportant.

This issue of secularization, this retreat from religion and from traditional morality itself is an important issue for denominationalists. They, with good reason, see the consequences of undermining denominational education as a retreat from the Christian culture and traditional morality.

### Technocracy

Technocracy, in its extreme, refers to the management of society by technical experts, the main purpose of which is to train students in the skills necessary for jobs. This view of education is pervasive and strongly held. The recent report, *Education for Self-Reliance,* with its emphasis on entrepreneurship in education, is representative of the technocratic position. The Chambers of Commerce and the Federal Government with their emphasis on technological training show how widespread and powerful this view of education is. The truth is that the voices against technocracy are weak and getting weaker. Two brief points need to be made here that have a bearing on the delivery of education. The first is that education which concerns itself primarily with earning a living is narrow and unimaginative. It is life-adjustment education, seeking to prepare students for what is, even though what is does not stay around long enough to be prepared for. A list of the vocational courses generally offered in schools -- automobile mechanics, electricity, carpentry, machine shop -- shows how limited, how outmoded vocational educational already is. Second, and a direct consequence of the first, is that it encourages the schools to add a proliferation of courses, courses that are expensive and peripheral to education.

### Freedom and Rights

Modernism is characterized by the demand for freedom and human rights. This demand has taken at least three forms:

1. First, there is the demand to meet the diversity of individual needs and interest of students. The biggest change in trying to meet this demand has come in the provision of programs for disabled students in the "least restricted environment". in secondary schools the aim is to prepare those with physical and mental disabilities for integration into society. This may be done by developing independent life skills, and by providing leisure and recreational activities. Much of this training should be integrated into the community in which the students will be living.

   However, this demand to meet individual needs, along with the deinstitutionalization of special needs children, has more or less obliged schools to deliver special programs for the severely handicapped students and while endorsed by some is viewed, an inappropriate responsibility for the school.

2. Second, the emphasis on freedom, combined with the view that schooling should meet the diversity of student needs, has encouraged schools to provide a variety of courses -- from woodwork to myth, from sex education to drafting -- for students to choose from. It seems to be accepted that the grater the variety of courses a school offers the better the school is. This seems to be, in part at least, the philosophy that motivates that push for consolidation of schools. In larger schools students have a greater range of choices. And since choice is regarded as inherently good, it is thought to be the right of all students, from small communities as well as large, to be able to make these choices. However, choice is not in itself a good; neither is a variety of choices synonymous with education -- the development of understanding of self and the world. This latter is accomplished through the initiation of students into their inheritance,

into such fields of knowledge as literature, science, mathematics, social studies, and religious studies so that students may learn their language, vocabulary, ideas, and ways of exploration. Such initiation is necessary if our students are to be literate, are to understand themselves and the world, and if they are to be able to think new thoughts about the world. No other institution but the school is able to fulfil this responsibility. The important question, then, is not, how many choices? but, which choices? And the educator's response should be, those choices which contribute to the students' understanding of themselves and the world. It is clear that our schools cannot meet all of the needs of students and society. To do so is to weaken the ability of the school in the discharge of its primary responsibility -- the provision of general education.

3. Another aspect of the stress on individual freedom is the concern for self -- self-development, self-expression, self-fulfilment. Those educators who see the development of self as central in education usually speak of the responsibility of the school in meeting those needs of the individual necessary for self development. They speak of the need for a positive self concept, social needs, survival needs, the need for self-actualization. They say little if anything about the need for virtue, truth, knowledge. In fact, they seem to forget the relationship between the development of self and the culture, one's inheritance. It needs to be pointed out that self cannot develop in a vacuum. We need our cultural heritage if we are to nourish and develop our selves. This cultural heritage includes our Judaeo-Christian tradition. It would be irresponsible for our school curriculum or our educational delivery system not to take this fact into account.

### Egalitarianism

The most outstanding example of egalitarianism in education lies in the provision for multi-culturalism. In 1971 former rime minister Pierre Trudeau took the first step in the development of a policy on multi-culturalism. He said:

> *For although there are two official languages (in Canada) there is no official culture, nor does any ethnic group take precedence over any other...A policy of multi-culturalism within a bilingual framework commends itself to the government as the most suitable means of assuring the cultural freedom of Canadians* (cited in McAndrew, 1987, p. 145).

This policy of encouraging cultural differences has helped to define the identity of the country as one which tolerates and encourages diversity. The hope seems to be that by encouraging the contributions of all cultures, they will all feel a sense of belonging to Canada, that Canada is theirs.

Although multi-culturalism in Newfoundland may not be as prominent as it is in some provinces such as Ontario, it is not without influence. Schools have to be sensitive to cultural differences, making sure that textbooks are culturally unbiased, providing for equality of opportunity for minority students. For example, the federal and provincial government shave, apart from French immersion classes, provided classes for those whose mother tongue is French, provided a French school on the west coast of the province to preserve and foster French culture and language. They have also provided a Micmac school in Conne River, one in which the community has control over hiring of personnel, and over curriculum and administration. Similarly, there is provision made for the development of an independent Innu school in Labrador.

There seems, then, to be in Newfoundland an acceptance of the rights of the family, community, and cultural groups in education. There also seems to be an acceptance of a variety of schooling to preserve and foster diversity in language and culture. It is ironic that, as we develop a multi-cultural policy that celebrates diversity, there is so much discussion about providing a homogenous, monopolistic system of education. There seems to be much more tolerance of division by language and culture than there is of division by religious conviction. But, it needs to be pointed out, one's religious convictions, and the habits, conventions, rituals, symbols, and celebrations that grow out of and express these convictions, are a fundamental part of the culture of Christians, and need to be taken as seriously as we take the culture of minorities.

### Bigger Is Better

Schools in Newfoundland have always been regarded as important social institutions -- as centres of learning and community activity, as places for community meetings, adult classes, and recreation. However, in order to offer a greater variety of courses, to provide more facilities and specialists we have consolidated small schools to form larger ones, thus leaving many communities without schools. In so doing we have eliminated an important community centre rom many communities, and we have moved schools further from the people they serve, thus depersonalizing the delivery of education, providing less opportunity for parents to be involved in the education of their children. Furthermore, consolidation requires the provision of bus transportation. This creates particular difficulty for young children who have to spend long hours away from their homes. In certain communities where winter roads are treacherous bussing also causes the loss of many school days (as high, a colleague has reported, as 35 days during one winter in one school), thus, ironically, undermining the very benefits that large schools are meant to provide. Nor is it clear that the benefits provided by large schools outweigh those provided by smaller community schools. The literature on small schools shows that they have certain benefits. For example, in smaller schools students participate more, form closer relationships, are more productive, are absent from school less often, and find their work more meaningful (Hall, 1976). We should, then, be more cautious than we have been about closing small schools; larger is not always better.

## Responsibilities of Schools

### Intellectual

Children are new to the humanly created world and are, therefore, obliged to be learners. Schools are those special places established by society for those learners. It is, therefore, the responsibility of schools to declare themselves to be places of learning, and to declare also that students, if they wish to attend those places of learning, are to recognize themselves preeminently as learners.[1]

The school cannot hope to satisfy all the needs of society, and in trying to do so it has fragmented and trivialized the curriculum. My contention is that the primary function of schooling is the provision of a general education. This function consists of two parts:

1. Teaching students the foundation skills of literacy and numeracy. These are foundation skills because they are necessary for the mastery of other subjects. Basic literacy is a prerequisite to the study of all forms of knowing, and mathematics is necessary for the study of some of the nature sciences. Further, they are also foundational because mastery of them is necessary to function with facility in our everyday living.
2. Initiating students into the significant forms of knowing, such as literature, mathematics, social studies, religious studies. These show us what we have created, what we have discovered about ourselves and the world, and how we have done so. This knowledge is necessary for understanding and, since we cannot create in a vacuum, for creativity. It emphasizes content and process, knowing what and knowing how. Schools may be regarded as convenient places for

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[1] This may seem like an innocuous, motherhood statement. It isn't. Too many of our schools are primarily custodial institutions rather than sites or learning where students have to take responsibility for learning and where teachers, with determination and patience, help them to.

teaching other things such as vocational education courses, but these are peripheral to general education and should never take time, money, resources from the central function of schooling.

3. General education should be provided for all students. This is the goal of schooling, though it may require different teaching methods, materials, class sizes, class scheduling, and emphases.[2]

Social and Cultural

Although schools must be concerned with the welfare of their students, they cannot reasonably be expected to assume the duties of other social institutions. However, because of the fragmentation of the family, the emphasis on human rights, and lobbying from pressure groups, they have found themselves doing just that. For example, they have introduced developmental programs for the severely handicapped and expanded their programs to include such courses as sex education, parenting, and driver education. What can be reasonably expect of schools in the social/cultural area? The responsibilities may be stated generally as:

1. The development of appreciation for the variety of language, religious, and cultural differences in our society -- provincial, Canadian, and world.
2. The development of understanding of the principles -- religious, political, philosophical -- that underlie our social system.
3. The development of social skills so that students learn how to work with others in a variety of situations.

Moral and Religious

The authority of the school stems from tradition, including the Christian tradition. Tradition provides the foundation for what our society regards as the good -- truth, justice, freedom, respect for others. These may not exist in our society to the degree that we would like, but they are our ideals. Schools have a responsibility to reflect these ideals, and to help our children (the majority of whom come from a Christian background) to understand that they are inheritors of a great Christian tradition. However, because there are students whose background is not Christian, denominational schools have a responsibility to respect the right of such students to absent themselves from religious exercises and religious education courses. Further, where there are students of different religious backgrounds, schools should provide opportunities in such courses as literature, history, and art for students to learn about the variety of religious and cultural expressions as may be represented in the school.

Personal

Schools have a responsibility to develop the individual, but, it should be pointed out, education does not concern itself only with the individual; it is also the concern of community -- the social community into which one is born and the community of learning into which we must be initiated. To serve the first of these communities the school must develop those skills of numeracy, literacy, and thinking necessary to live within it. It should also reflect the enduring human values which operate within the community. As Crittenden (1988) points out, "Children cannot spend the first fourteen or fifteen years of their life in a value-neutral cocoon, gaining nothing more than a sociological bird's eye view of alternate ways of life" (p. 110). He goes on to make the point that in order for people to make rational choices about their lives they need to be able to make reference to a framework of accepted values and experiences.

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[2] This may seem like an elitist view of education, one that is likely to create a lack of interest in education and a high drop-out rate. Joong (1990) found in his review of the literature on the subject that his was not the case. He writes: "absenteeism is less prevalent in schools where teachers are interested and engaged with students, and there is an emphasis on academic pursuits" (p. 5). He further adds, "students are more likely to persist to graduate in schools with an emphasis on academic pursuits, orderly environment, and less internal differentiation" (p. 5).

However, it is not the role the school to reproduce the image of the community in every student. It also must, through introducing students to the ways of knowing of the learning community, help students develop insight into what has been received, to help them to evaluate it and refine their thinking with respect to it. The main point made here is that self cannot develop in a vacuum. It is true that it needs opportunities for expression and making choices, but these can only be done within an inherited culture, what Crittenden calls "a framework of accepted values and experiences".

## Implications

Those responsible for education in Newfoundland seem to have only one of two choices when making decisions about the kind of school system that will best serve our students. Either they can choose to impose a common school system for all, or they can allow parents, within prescribed limits (number of students, curriculum, qualifications of teachers, as prescribed by the Department of Education), the kind of education they want for their children. The first of these choices is not feasible in a society that encourages diversity, a society that has already, through public funding, provided schools for different cultural groups. As well, the imposition of a common school system against the wishes of the majority of parents would deny parents their central place in the education of their children. It would also be intolerable because a common public system, in trying to avoid accusations of racial and religious bigotry, would eliminate Christian culture from the schools, as has happened elsewhere.

The second choice, to allow parents, directly or indirectly through a cultural or religious group, to choose the kind of education they want for their children is becoming widely accepted and practised. For example, in Holland the parents of any group of 25 children can form their own school. The same policy exists in New Zealand (Lawton, 1990). The Sullivan Report, about education in British Columbia, *A Legacy for Learners*, also accepts the notion of diversity in schooling. The commissioners state that as long as schools meet certain requirements, "our wish is to encourage choice and diversity, both within and outside the public school system" (p. 56). They go on to describe four categories of non-public schools for purposes of public funding. As further evidence of their acceptance of diversity in schooling and the rights of parents to make decisions with respect to the education of their children, they recommend: "That provisions be included in the School Act to recognize the existence of home schooling" (p. 57).

It seems clear to me, then, that Newfoundland education cannot, should not, be a homogenized system, that it must provide for diversity. The following are some tentative conclusions on this point:

1. If there are groups who do not want to send their children to denominational schools, they should be allowed (providing they meet the criteria specified by the Department of Education) to start their own school. It is unreasonable to dismantle denominational schools, and thus deny the rights of denominationalists (the majority) in order to protect the rights of a minority.
2. We should be much more cautious about closing small community schools. It is important to state here that schools are important community institutions, that they reflect the culture, the habits, attitudes, desires of a community. Therefore, more than efficiency should be taken into account when deciding whether or not to wrench them from the community.
3. We should allow for home schooling. If parents do not want their children to attend a particular school for religious or academic reasons, they should, if they meet specified criteria, be able to

provide home schooling for their children.

4. Some students seem not to be able to cope with life in regular schools. They learn very little, are frequently absent, and disrupt the learning of other students. Provision should be made, where feasible, for alternative schools. This is necessary for the benefit of those students who are unable to benefit from regular schooling, and for the morale and smooth running of the school.
5. Some small schools may not be able to offer certain necessary courses such as mathematics, art, science, and music. Instead of regarding this as an opportunity for consolidation, we should give more consideration to providing such courses by using the appropriate technology.

To accept diversity in schooling is not necessarily to accept the view that there should be no cooperation or that there are no opportunities for sharing. There is nothing inherent in the denominational system of education that calls for duplication of all services. For example, why should two schools, whether of the same school board (Prince of Wales Collegiate and Booth Memorial High School) or of different boards (the Integrated and Roman Catholic high schools in Gander), offer the same courses if they are bot under-populated? Or why should students in one school, who are unable to study a particular course in their school, not be able to study the course in a nearby school which offers it?

Though bussing is provided by denominational school boards, there is nothing inherently denominational about school bussing. Where consolidation takes place busses are usually needed. But if school boards want to receive public funding for their bussing, why cannot the Department of Education state that the sharing of bussing services, where necessary, is a prerequisite for such funding?

I am tempted to say that there is nothing about denominational education that requires individual school boards to provide learning resource centres, subject area consultations, and other specialists. I am tempted, but won't make the generalization because it may be important for each denomination ____ consultants in such sensitive areas as family life education and religious education. But why could not the Department of Education establish regional offices throughout the province for consultants in less sensitive areas? This idea would need careful consideration and analysis. I know, before it could be implemented. But on the surface it seems to have possibilities, allowing for the elimination of duplication, providing all schools with qualified consultants in each subject area instead of the two or three subject areas that some consultants have to take responsibility for in small boards. Another possibility would be for the Commission to call for a joint arrangement between Memorial University and the Department of Education. Such regional offices could serve as University field centres (recommended in the Hardy Report) and service centres for schools, OISE field centres serve a similar function. Such an arrangement could provide a nice balance between research and service. It would also mean, if the employees of such centres worked according to the University or the Departmental schedule, that annual vacations would be shorter than they are now thus providing more time for curriculum development, and preparing for inservicing. Perhaps an altogether different approach is called for. Perhaps consultants are a hangover from an earlier time when teachers were not as qualified as they are now. Perhaps there is much less need for "out-of-school" consultants than there used to be. Perhaps it is time to think of appointing master teachers, whose responsibility it would be to provide for professional development in school subject areas. The literature on school improvement certainly suggests that collaboration within schools is conducive to instructional improvement.

Similarly, the Department of Education could provide regional resource centres. This is not to suggest that there would be no contentious issues as a result of such a move. For example, some would, quite correctly, argue that values permeate the process of selecting materials. Because this is so, school could be required to make their own selections. It would be the responsibility of the regional centres to provide support services -- selection aids, professional expertise, hardware, production assistance, technical assistance such as cataloguing, and general coordination of resource services. (See the recent reports on financing education and small schools for further discussion of the topic.)

The image of Newfoundland schools, especially high schools, is blurred. It needs to be brought into sharper focus. If we ask our schools to do only what they can do well, and what no other institutions do or can do as well, we will have less need to deliver such varied courses and services, creating a more streamlined, more efficient system.

Chapter 4

# COMPONENTS OF A MANDATE STATEMENT

Sr. Teresita Dobbin

A mandate statement for the schools of Newfoundland and Labrador must be drawn from the philosophy of education as expressed in the province's *Aims of Public Education for Newfoundland and Labrador*. The Aims state that education is a process which has as its purpose the fullest and best development of the student, achieved through an understanding and practice of the Christian an democratic ideals that are accepted in our society. This is a fundamental philosophical position which must be the foundation of a mandate statement for the province's schools. It envisions the school as a learning environment, a place to grow in intellectual power, in physical skill, in social competence, in emotional stability, and in moral and spiritual well-being. The school is a place of integral formation; the whole person is to be educated and in the process, the school must be sensitive to each student's needs and recognize each student as a worthwhile individual with rights and responsibilities.

The statement of Aims makes the educated person the goal of education. Educated persons are educated to the maximal point of their intelligence. They are spiritually and morally formed. They are free of encumbrances that might keep them from developing to their full potential. They are sensitive to others and to the world around them and have a lively sense of their rights and responsibilities as citizens. They reflect upon values, meanings, and life problems. In action, they achieve being responsive. They are prepared for a changing society and the technological workplace. They have acquired self-identify, freedom, and self-fulfilment. They are creative and critical thinkers and can accept and cope with change.

Very important to the school's mandate is a statement of **goals** flowing from the philosophy underlying the endeavour. The only way to judge the success or failure of any enterprise is to determine how well it has met its goals. All who are interested in schools should decide the goals, looking to authoritative sources for guidance. Schools cannot adequately meet all of society's expectations. There is a major gap between what society envisions schools can do (goals) and what schools actually do. Until one recognizes the gap and clearly defines the educational needs, it is impossible to develop the model of what schools **should** do.

In stating goals, one should not get carried away with long lists and objectives for every subject area. It is wise to find broad areas of goals which continue to emerge as challenged by societal change, e.g., academic, vocational, social, cultural, and personal. Keep in mind the specific mission of a school, that is, the transmission of culture, life learning, response to technological change, and **special goals** that the school needs to recognize at the present time. The responsibilities of the school is a point that needs to be addressed as related to goals.

Goals have to do with education for total wellness. Total wellness, far from being merely passive, is an active process through which a student becomes aware of and makes choices toward a balanced existence; stimulating the mind through curiosity and creative thinking, reaching out and developing meaningful relationships with others, fulfilling social obligations for the welfare of the community, setting aside time for reflection and relaxation, developing techniques that will allow one to understand, express, and manage one's full range of emotions; acquiring skills that will fit one for today's workplace and enable one to change careers if needed; growing in respect for the value of work; pursuing a life that has motivation, purpose, and meaning, and exercising and eating for maximum performance.

At the same time, each school's goals are and must remain unique. Among the sources of uniqueness are generous and energetic constituencies, enriching specialization, a vision that facilitates good decisions, and adaption to needs. Uniqueness is also obvious in the way the school translates its goals into functions. The school cannot shoulder all the blame for society, for example, and it cannot take upon itself the duties of other social agencies. Nevertheless, it must provide custodial services for its children and it has the responsibility to promote the socialization of children and to cultivate in them a keen social awareness and a profound civic economic, and political sense.

Another source of uniqueness, as far as goals are concerned, is this province's denominational system. Christian schools accord importance to ethics and values. There is the goal of building a better world and this should involve a positive attitude to work, students seeing in it a means of developing themselves, of serving others, of building up the world, and of promoting justice and peace. This, in turn, involves making demands on leadership to assume responsibility for changing harmful structures as well as finding opportunities for channelling efforts into relieving those in need. In Christian schools, there is an interdependence between personal betterment and the improvement of society.

A mandate statement must make clear what kind of curriculum proposes to attain the school goals. Curriculum is that which contains activities, content, processes, values, and institutional arrangements as intended, as emphasized, and as experienced in the school ambience in connection with the schools educational purposes. In practice, the curriculum is the interaction of students and school personnel in an educational environment directed toward a predetermined goal. These matters may or may not be included in the course of study. The course of study, organized mostly for classroom use, usually refers to the printed school document which gives a formal statement of the required content and often the sequence of the various subjects taught. Bur curriculum is more than that. Curriculum embraces all those academic, moral, social and physical experiences the school fosters for the growth of its students. The school mandate should be clear on this point - the nature of the curriculum - even as it states the **scope** of the curriculum, the approaches to instruction, for example, both subject specific and interdisciplinary orientations, the outcomes expected and the evaluation procedures used.

Nothing is more characteristic of our time than its scientific-mathematical-technological orientation. The curriculum cannot disregard this fact. Students must become literate with the grasp of literacy that today's world demands, with a facility in finding one's way around in a world where communication through plural media is a condition of intelligent living. While a scientific-mathematical-technological world, however, is the heritage of today's children, their's too, is a world of aesthetic desire and of fine creation. They must be able to use, not only the language of words and be computer literate which are needed achievements, but also the language of the visual and fine arts - music, movement, line, colour, and form. The curriculum must be a balance of selected learning experiences that help students develop academic, social, creative and physical skills and commitment to values that make an essential base for effective living in the twenty-first century.

School atmosphere is important. Every school must deal with an atmosphere, parts of which come from outside the school, others from the inside. The external atmosphere is constituted by those conditions which come from society - aspects like whether the society encourages schooling by making upward mobility possible; what values the society cherishes that influence what the school will do and teach whether the society stresses a schooling for **doing** rather than **being**, thus determining whether a school will provide goals for educating the whole person or emphasize skills only for earning a living. The internal atmosphere is that within the school such items as whether enough funding has been provided for comfortable classrooms, adequate resources, quality teaching, and if there is a caring school community. The atmosphere is not of the essence of education, but is integral to it and gives the school its flavour and this is important.

Those in the front line of bringing the school's goals to realization are the schools' educators which term includes teachers, administrators, counsellors, school board directors and co-ordinators, staff, and others. Their roles and responsibilities should be clarified. Teachers and school principals are particularly important. Teachers are guides, resource persons, change agents, presenters of choices, and role models. They should be thoroughly prepared and competent, sensitive to the needs of students. Their education should be in a wide range of cultural, psychological and pedagogical areas in accord with the discoveries of modern times. The "master teacher" is the principal. Principals are to be instructional leaders, managers of time, and resources, skilled communicators, observers and evaluators of staff, creators of the school's morale and climate, and leaders in goal-setting and attainment, school-community relations, and teacher support.

A school mandate must enhance the parents' role. The role of parents, as the prime educators of their children, is crucial, resulting - when successfully implemented - in a multiplier effect on the educational efforts of the school. Teachers and principals, indeed, all who are involved in the administration of the school have a responsibility to build wholesome relationships with parents. Parents must understand the school's goals and curriculum and the school's methods of evaluating students. Parent participation in every aspect of school life should be encouraged. In terms of student achievement, home and school factors working in consort make the greatest plus variable to school effectiveness.

A mandate statement should give the student centre place. Indeed, the end, purpose, and centre of the school enterprise is the student. It is the student as a person who counts. Education is more than simply imparting functional knowledge; it is knowledge that is appropriate to and relevant to and important to the student who is a person with her or his own ways of learning. Our schools must strive for the integral formation of students, their physical, moral, and intellectual talents as they are prepared for active participation in social life. Students cannot be prepared for life in the twenty-first century without values education. Values in schooling are more important today than ever, because this is a time of crisis for their absence. Some special values for emphasis today are service (schools should provide opportunities for students to give service to the community); justice (one sees concrete situations of injustice in the human family and on the political economic, and socio-cultural levels) peace which is a fruit of justice; equality for women, and respect for others whatever their beliefs and/or race. Prescinding from this view, all of us, no matter what our philosophy of life, must seek the freedom to "be all you can be, " the modern slogan equivalent to the ancient Pythagorean goal of education to "become what you are."

The Minister of Education within the Department of Education, develops the mandate statement for the Province's schools and refines it in collaboration with the denominational education committees and with educators and parents at each school district level. The Royal Commission on Education should give impetus and strength to the Minister's mandate as it presents problems raised in provincial discussions on schooling and offers a challenge to all concerned to come forward with an agenda for improvement. Such a mandate prepared by the Minister of Education and his consultants will be within the context of the Province's *Aims of Education* and will speak to the components of a mandate statement as expressed above. In this way, as it evidences responsible and responsive leadership at the departmental level, it will be a reference, a starting point for each school to develop a mission statement reflecting the school's performance record and demanding a mission effectiveness program.

Chapter 5

# EXPANDING EXPECTATIONS - CONFLICTING Ideologies: Re-thinking The Process of Education in Newfoundland

Dennis Mulcahy

> No matter how perfect the disciple, nor how good and pious his speech, he rarely should be given permission to speak for: 'In much speaking, you shall not escape sin'(Prov.10:19).
>
> The master should speak and teach, the disciple should listen and learn". (Sixth century Rule of St. Benedict)

## Towards a New Mandate for Newfoundland Schools

The purpose of this position paper is to describe the changing roles and responsibilities of schools in Newfoundland and to propose some procedural principles that might inform a process of re-thinking and re-defining a future mandate for primary, elementary, and secondary education in this province.

A school mandate may be understood as the explicit and implicit collective view of a community in a particular context as to the role and responsibilities of its system of education in relation to the development and care of its children. Such a mandate should reflect a community's values, assumptions and beliefs about the purposes of the processes of education. It should give a clear indication of the kinds of teaching strategies and learning experiences that are desirable and needed. It should be a concrete expression of the hopes and aspirations held for the personal and cultural development of the children of this province. Most importantly a mandate should give a clear sense of direction and purpose to those charged with the actual development of programs and the operation of schools. It provides them with a rationale and a set of principles that inform their day-to-day interactions with the students in the classroom.

### Why Is A New Mandate Needed?

A legitimate question to ask is: Why is it imperative at this point in time that such a process of re-thinking and re-evaluation of the current explicit and implicit mandate of schools take place?

The answer to this question lies in the ever-increasing feelings of frustration, disillusionment, confusion and disenfranchisement experienced by most individuals and groups who have a concern with and an interest in the process of education in Newfoundland.

It is fair to say that most if not all persons who are even somewhat aware and thoughtful are sharply critical of the present state of our schools. Such criticisms come from all quarters and constituencies and are directed toward all aspects of the ways schools are organized and the kinds of learning experiences and services provided.

Unfortunately, a common response to these feelings of dissatisfaction is the searching for a scapegoat, an activity fuelled by the politics of blame. Students, parents, teachers, the clergy, school boards, the Department of Education, the University, the NTA, the PTA's, the Federation of School Boards, the DEC'S and others have all had their turn blaming others and being blamed for one or more of the ills that plague the system of education in this province.

The politics of personal blame and collective accusation are not a very effective way of solving problems. It merely creates the need for individuals and groups to erect self-serving, defensive postures which mitigate against any kind of open and critical inquiry that has some chance of finding useful and acceptable solutions to the problem. The real losers are the children who, while their elders are bickering and wrangling petulantly with one another, must watch their educational opportunities go down the drain.

Rather than blaming each other and looking for scapegoats it might be more productive to attempt to define the nature of the problem. Why are so many informed and thoughtful people from all constituencies in this province so dissatisfied and frustrated with our schools? What is the problem? What is wrong with our schools?

### Expanding Expectations - Conflicting Ideologies

One way of coming to grips with the problematic state of education in this province is to see it in terms of expanding expectations and conflicting ideologies. The demands being placed on schools and the roles they are expected to play in the development and care of the young people of this province have greatly increased over the years. These expectations, particularly in recent years, have placed an incredible and perhaps unrealistic demand on the resources of school boards and teachers in terms of time, energy, skills and finances.

Exacerbating the situation has been the fact that many of these demands quite often reflect contradictory and exclusive ideological positions in relation to the purposes and practices of schools. This puts the schools and in particular classroom teachers in a very difficult position of trying to make sense of mixed messages as to the direction and organization of the learning experiences they are expected to provide for their students. It isn't that these expectations and demands do not reflect the genuine needs of children or truly desirable educational outcomes. Most do. The problem is one of resources - human, temporal, material and financial - needed to satisfy all of the requests.

It might be illuminating for the present purpose to review very briefly some of these expanding and conflicting demands and expectations we currently have of schools and which are currently sources of stress and tension within and without our system.

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Perhaps the most significant and challenging of these expanding demands is the range and diversity of students that must be provided for in the regular school by classroom teachers. Schools and classrooms are social institutions and organizations. When you change the mix of individuals you affect all aspects of the dynamics of curricular interaction. This diversity has emerged most significantly relatively recently and reflects among other things changing family patterns, the increasing pluralistic nature of our society and school population, and the new provincial educational policy of integration.

The home life situations and family structures of our students vary considerably. Students coming from what was once considered a "traditional" family, that is two parents, with the mother at home and the father at work, are today a distinct minority. The majority of mothers with school-age children work outside the home. There are more and more single-parent families. More children than ever before have to, during their school years, cope with a divorce in their family; more young people than ever have to adjust to a step-father or step-mother and additional siblings. A recent U.S. statistic reveals that only 7% of school age children live in a two-parent household where there is only one wage earner. Although the current situation here may not be as dramatically changed as that, the general pattern is similar. The important point is that the traditional image of the family and a student's home life no longer holds. The process of social change has splintered the single image into a whole spectrum of new possibilities.

A student's home life has always been perceived as having a profound effect on her or his performance in school. Significant changes in this form have to be taken into consideration by teachers and schools. It is fair to say that at this point in time the full impact of this kind of social change on schools has yet to be fully comprehended. One thing is certain, most parents today quite often do not have the same time or energy to help their children with their schooling that earlier generations had, at least in theory. Consequently, the expectation is that the teachers and the schools will do much more or perhaps even everything. Furthermore, the number of "latch key" children is increasing and so too is the demand that the schools will provide custodial care for some children from early morning to 5:30 p.m. or 6:00 p.m. in the evening. Many more children are looking to the school and more specifically the teachers to provide nurturing, care and comfort that may not be as available at home as it was for previous generations. For many the school has become home, the teacher has become parent. In locus parentis has been redefined.

A second significant factor in terms of the changed expectations of schools in relation to the learners is ethnicity and religion. Canada is a multicultural nation and that pluralism in terms of race and religion is being increasingly seen in Newfoundland schools, particular those in the cities and larger towns. The traditional homogeneity of our students has given way to classrooms where individuals of many different cultural backgrounds are to be found. For example, in a large elementary school in St. John's the student population represents twenty-five different birth countries. Many of these different groups are not affiliated with one of the Christian denominations served by the province's school system.

There has been and continues to be an ever-increasing pressure from the parents of these children, human rights agencies and multicultural associations that our schools in Newfoundland and Labrador be more sensitive and responsive to these new multicultural realities. However, such necessary sensitivity makes instructional planning and teaching much more complex and problematic than in an earlier time. A whole new set of assumptions and values has to be taken into consideration. One can no longer proceed as if every one subscribes to the same religion and the same set of cultural and moral values.

In addition to what might be called an external or imposed multicultural reality, Newfoundland has had to acknowledge its own internal, indigenous pluralism more and more in recent years. The obvious examples of this are the indigenous peoples of the Island and of Labrador and the francophone Newfoundlanders on the west coast of the province. It is only in recent years that the francophone Newfoundlanders have been able to educate their children in the French language. Even more recent has been the reluctant recognition of the rights and special needs of our indigenous peoples in relation to educational matters.

Newfoundland has also had a significant Chinese population that has never been acknowledged from an educational perspective. Finally, there is an increased awareness of the pluralism in most matters that exists within and between the original founding cultural groups of this province. The apparent homogeneity that supposedly characterized earlier generations of school children has given way to a rich and troublesome mosaic of difference. Consensus about any issue or concern is, today, practically non-existent in this province. Any process of change in education, or in any other area, has to begin with acknowledging this fact.

The recently implemented educational policy of integration has also significantly changed the image of the learners in schools and classrooms. Today, students, who for a variety of intellectual and emotional/behavioral reasons, would normally be in a separate classroom and in some instances a separate school are now expected to be placed and educated in the regular classroom. This change has given the concept of "mixed ability" grouping a whole new meaning. In the same primary/elementary classroom, an individual teacher may have some students who are gifted, some who are bright, some average, and some who have special needs in terms of intellectual or behavioral problems and who require the constant attention and supervision of a "student assistant". To "individualize" instruction to satisfy the learning needs for such a diverse class of individuals, which is the current expectation, can be very demanding and complex and in the view of many teachers an impossible task.

Integration is based on a particular set of beliefs and assumptions about education and the processes of teaching and learning. They have particular implications for how one organizes and structures school programs and classroom activities. At this point in time these particular beliefs and implications are not totally understood and/or accepted by many teachers and parents in our system. Many teachers feel that inadequate provision for implementing these changes has left them very poorly prepared and supported to deal with what is for them a very fundamental change in their classrooms.

The challenge and expectation held out to schools is that they are to be responsive to and responsible for every child. As the school population continues to diversify this ideal becomes increasingly problematic to implement.

* * * * *

The demand that the education system be accessible, sensitive and responsive to **all** children is complemented by the expectation that the schools accept responsibility for meeting **all** the developmental, learning and social needs of each and every child.

Schools are expected to ensure that each and every student attain his/her maximum potential in all areas of human development including: the physical, the social, the emotional, the moral, the spiritual, the intellectual, the aesthetic, and the linguistic (in our two official languages). A survey of any provincial curriculum document reveals that each of these areas has expanded and grown into an impressive yet staggering array of individual aims, goals and objectives.

In addition to these areas of individual growth and development there is the expectation that students, through their schooling, will acquire the knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, and sense of personal and civic responsibility they need in order to live as critical and concerned citizens both locally and internationally. They must qualify, through their schooling, for entry into various post-secondary educational institutions and the workforce. They must learn what they need to know to be effective and caring parents and partners. The requirements in all these areas are constantly increasing in complexity and sophistication. Public criticism of education increases and the demand that the schools do more escalates as the gap between what our young people **need to know** and what the school currently delivers continues to widen.

The school is also expected to provide a variety of stimulating and provocative learning experiences that give students with the opportunity to make sense of and impose meaning on the myriad experiences encountered through their daily social interactions and through the all-pervasive and persuasive media. Thus, the school is not just responsible for teaching what is a very prescribed curriculum; part of its role and responsibility is to respond quickly to emergent events and social concerns. An illustrative case in point is the present Persian Gulf War. There is a clear indication that people expect the schools to help children cope with their fears, understand what is happening and investigate the implications of the events for themselves and the rest of the world. Emergent topics such as this brings with it as well the observation and the criticism of how little our schools here in Canada and Newfoundland teach us about the Middle East, Arab culture the Islamic religion. ( Yet one more implicit expectation.)

As each new social concern and problem emerges or is acknowledged people look to the schools for explanations and solutions. In recent years there has been the expectation that the schools deal with such difficult issues such as teenage suicide, drug and alcohol abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, Aids , animal and rain forest conservation, water and air pollution , world hunger, world peace - the list just goes on and on.

We are becoming increasingly aware in this province of the shocking degree and incidence of the sexual,physical and moral abuse of children. We are being forced to acknowledge that too many of our children come from abusive homes where they may be witnessing their mothers and siblings being brutalized; we are accepting the fact that too many of our children are being neglected and not properly cared for in their homes. "Third world" conditions exist in many cases quite close to home.

With this new knowledge again comes the expectation that the schools will play a variety of roles in relation to these issues. Part of defined role is prevention. There is an expectation that the school will educate children so that they can avoid the risk of sexual abuse and know what to do if they are approached by threatening or persuasive adults. Schools and teachers are expected as well to be very vigilant in identifying the symptoms and possible victims of abuse. Furthermore, they must be prepared to counsel the victims of abuse. Most recently in Newfoundland this has become a very painful and delicate issue for schools and teachers. They have had to deal with the fact that some of the perpetrators of this kind of abuse have been priests, ministers, members of religious orders and other traditionally trusted members of the community. The stress and strain put on the schools, its teachers and counsellors to try and explain these events to our young people has been incredible. Finally, we are looking to schools to compensate for various kinds of physical neglect and cultural deprivation that characterizes too many of our children's lives. There are children in our schools whose first encounter with a book of any kind will be in a kindergarten class. There are children who are able to interact with other children only by hitting them. Some children are coming to school hungry and neglected. The school is expected to find ways and means of compensating for these situations as well.

There is constant pressure applied to the schools by parents, various vested interests, organized lobby groups and concerned citizens to do more and more in each of these areas. The response of the government, school boards and individual schools and teachers has been to create new programs, new courses, new teaching strategies and new learning opportunities both within the official school day and through the extra-curricular program.

Unfortunately, this expansion of demand and program has not taken place in any kind of carefully considered, rational curriculum development plan. There has been a distinct lack of coherent and consistent educational principles informing the various developments and attempts at implementation. There seems to have been no sense of the necessity to stand back from the individual and particular situation and need and attempt to make decisions from a global or whole perspective.

Instead development has occurred along individual subject lines with little regard to the impact and implications of such development on other subject areas and the overall balance of the school program. Similarly, developments in Primary , Elementary, Junior High and Senior High school have often proceeded according to quite distinct and often contradictory educational ideas and with little awareness or concern for continuity and consistency. Even a casual perusal of curriculum documents will reveal quite contradictory ideological positions in relation to organization and design of learning activities in the classroom. This kind of piecemeal, haphazard and at times kneejerk approach to development finally leads to an unworkable, overcrowded curriculum. When was the last time something was actually dropped from the curriculum? No matter how much more is added schools still remain responsible and acutely accountable for all "traditional" areas of learning as well. Low CTBS scores, public exam results and the participatory rates in tertiary levels of education continue to be sources of criticism for schools.

In trying to be all things to all people in trying to please and appease all vested interests and lobby groups, in trying to respond to all the genuine needs of children, schools end up in the long run not doing very much very well in any one aspect for any one. In trying to satisfy everyone it satisfies no one; the criticism grows while the morale of school personal continues to decline.

There was a time in this province when the school system worked to everyone's apparent satisfaction. It was a time when schools had a very clear, straightforward, generally accepted mandate. When the first schools opened in Newfoundland in the early eighteenth century, their mandate, their raison d'etre, was religious instruction: the inculcation of the young with the sectarian beliefs and principles of the Catholic and Protestant faiths. Whatever else was planned and occurred in the classroom was designed with this single educational aspiration clearly in mind. The teachers were missionaries in the figurative and literal sense of the word. Indeed, quite often they were clergy men and if they were not, they performed the duties of the minister in his absence. They knew exactly what was expected of them and they pursued that task with the assurance and confidence that only comes with a clear and limited sense of mission.

What is distinctly lacking in this province at this point in time is that kind of clear mandate and a consistent set of guiding educational principles which could inform the translating of that educational vision or mission into a workable, effective and efficient school program from kindergarten to grade twelve.

**Key Questions to Address in Creating a New Mandate**

There are four key questions that need to be discussed debated and answered in an attempt to create a new mandate for schools in Newfoundland. These questions are totally interdependent: the answer to one has enormous implications and consequences for each of the others. The four essential issues are:

1. IS THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR TO BE GENUINELY RESPONSIVE, SENSITIVE AND OPEN TO ALL THE YOUNG PEOPLE OF THIS PROVINCE? This questions needs to considered and answered in full knowledge of the kinds of diversity - economic, cultural, social, and intellectual - that actually exist. The implications of being genuinely responsive must be fully understood.

2. Given that children have many authentic needs and given that there are many highly desirable experiences they could have: WHICH OF THESE EXPERIENCES AND NEEDS WILL BE THE SPECIFIC RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL TO PROVIDE? The schools have taken on many of their responsibilities and roles in relation to young people primarily because no one else or no other social agency was willing or able to fill the need.

3. In its original conception the school system of this province was designed to function as the primary vehicle for the creation of the next generation of christians through the inculcation and indoctrination of the sectarian beliefs of the Protestant and Catholic faiths. This was and remains the fundamental and primary purpose of the Denominational System of education in this province. This fundamental purpose dominates and controls all kinds of curricular and organizational decisions in the system. IS IT IN THE BEST INTEREST OF THIS PROVINCE AND ITS CHILDREN THAT THE EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT DOMINATION AND CONTROL OF THE WHOLE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM THROUGH THIS RELIGIOUS ORIENTATION CONTINUE? Has the tie that binds become the yoke that chokes? To answer this question people need to be informed of the various ways this denominational orientation affects development in the schools. They also need to be aware of how the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms apparently requires access to non-denominational schools.

4. It has been pointed out above that curriculum development in this province ( as elsewhere) has been haphazard, piecemeal and largely uncoordinated. The system is rife with conflicting and contradictory ideologies and practices. This has occurred for many reasons. What has been consistently absent has been a set of guiding educational principles that would inform program and instructional planning from kindergarten to level three. Such a set of principles would inform the process of translating peoples hopes, aspirations and expectations for the educational system into an effective, efficient, workable process. WHAT FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES WILL BE ADOPTED BY THIS PROVINCE TO PROVIDE A SENSE OF

DIRECTIONALITY FOR ITS TEACHERS AND CURRICULUM PLANNERS?

**Procedural Principles for Creating a New Mandate**

The final part of this paper is concerned with suggesting possible procedural principles that might inform and guide the process of attempting to create a new mandate for schools in Newfoundland and Labrador.

1. ALL INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS WITH A VESTED INTEREST AND AUTHENTIC CONCERN SHOULD BE INVITED TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PROCESS OF CREATING A NEW MANDATE FOR OUR SCHOOLS.

   Traditionally, educational policy and decisions have been made by the church officials and designates and by government bureaucrats acting, they believed, in the best interests of the children of the province. For the purposes of creating a new mandate this decision-making process needs to be opened up to include authentic participation by the other significant stakeholders in the educational system. Chief among the other voices that must be heard are parents, classroom teachers, and students. Each of these has an enormous stake and investment in the schools and will be directly affected by all decisions made. Each has its own particular knowledge, experience and perspective that could be very valuable to this process. Also included should be representatives from the business community, post- secondary institutions, and other individuals and special interest groups who believe they should have a say in the future direction of the schools. Full public participation might go a long way in rebuilding the current declining support for public education in the province. It might be useful if each stakeholder were to declare his/her vested interest in educational system, his/her area(s) of expertise, to what degree he/she currently controls and influences decisions and policy. How their positions and their influences might be affected by changes to the status quo should also be made explicit.

2. ALL RELEVANT QUESTIONS AND ISSUES THAT ARE PERTINENT TO THE CREATION OF A NEW MANDATE FOR SCHOOLS SHOULD BE CONSIDERED OPEN AND NEGOTIABLE AND SUBJECT TO AN AUTHENTIC AND CRITICAL INQUIRY.

   The process should start with a clean slate. No aspect of the existing order or status quo should be considered sacrosanct or untouchable. The stance adopted should be one of starting over, of making a new beginning a fresh start. Equally important, an effort must be made to ensure participants that this is not an empty exercise but a genuine attempt to solicit the views of individuals and groups as to the future direction of education in this province. Furthermore, there has to be an assurance that these solicited views will be acted on.

3. ALL STAKEHOLDERS MUST BE EMPOWERED AND ENABLED TO SPEAK OPENLY AND WITHOUT FEAR ABOUT THE ISSUES AND QUESTIONS UNDER SCRUTINY.

   Educational decisions are highly charged, emotional and political matters in this province. The stakes are quite high and many individuals and groups have much to gain or lose by significant policy changes. There is a perception in this province that the price to be paid for being thoughtful and inquiring, for being questioning and critical of the educational status quo can be quite high for individuals. Fear of retaliation and censure has silenced much needed criticism and debate in this province hitherto.

4. DECISIONS ABOUT THE FUTURE DIRECTION OF EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND SHOULD BE MADE ACCORDING TO THE AUTHORITY OF KNOWLEDGE AND THE NOT THE AUTHORITY OF STATUS, POSITION OR PRECEDENT.

   There is the perception in this province that educational decisions are made for a variety of reasons the least important of which being the criteria of authentic knowledge. There must be a commitment that the new mandate for schools will be based on sound educational knowledge and the principles of democratic decision making.

5. THE NEW MANDATE FOR SCHOOLS IN THIS PROVINCE SHOULD BE REFLECTIVE OF THE CURRENT ATTITUDES, VALUES, AND ASPIRATIONS OF THE PEOPLE OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR.

Education in Canada is a provincial responsibility. One of the advantages of this is that an individual province can tailor and design a system of education that is contextually sensitive and responsive. We have the provincial power to decide our own educational futures. In Newfoundland and Labrador we need to be aware of what is happening elsewhere in Canada and the rest of the world. However, we must be prepared to carry out our deliberations grounded in our own present economic, social and cultural realities. These contextual realities must be our touchstone, not what is being done in another context. The solution or solutions to our educational problems must be found in the final analysis, in this province by our own people. We cannot import a solution; we must struggle to find our own because every educational context is unique and different. Part of the problem we have has been created by the importation in an uncritical fashion of policies and practices from elsewhere.

## Conclusion

There is an irreversible groundswell of opinion in this province that the time has come to critically examine and re-think many of our traditional attitudes, beliefs and practices in relation to all our social institutions. There is a growing awareness that many things are not working; there is a strong felt need for re-thinking, change and starting over. There is an increasing willingness to debunk the myths of the "happy province" and to acknowledge and accept the unpleasant and hitherto unspeakable brutal realities that are the lives of too many Newfoundlanders on the Island and in Labrador.

This desire for change is accompanied by a demand by ordinary people for more of a voice in finding solutions. There is a demand that the process of decision making become democratized and free of intimidation and control. They want decisions made according to the authority of knowledge and not the authority of status and traditional vested interests. In all spheres of social life including and perhaps especially education there is a growing feeling that a small select group have been for too long making decisions that are not in the best interest of the children and the future development of this province.

A public forum to which all legitimate stakeholders are invited and empowered to speak openly and freely and out of which a new mandate for schools could emerge would be a model for all other social institutions to follow. It would educate others to the potential of the process.

*PART III*

# Trends in Education

Part III of the report provides the background to the factors which have shaped and continue to shape the nature of education in the province. Some assessment of the identified trends and impacts as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the present system are provided.

Traditionally, parents have abdicated responsibility for their children's education in favour of church or government authorities. Yet, schooling is more and more being seen as being most effective when it is "an inter-generational act". The literature suggests that student achievement is enhanced and the incidence of leaving school early is greatly diminished when there is strong parental support. Although parent-teacher associations exist in many schools, and could exist in all schools, parents do not have any legislated power over any significant aspects of schooling, and typically focus their efforts on fund-raising activities. In chapter 6, Jeannie House was asked to investigate the value of parental involvement in educational decision making, and to recommend, if appropriate, the most suitable means by which parents might have a more meaningful and effective role to play in the education of their children.

The Terms of Reference of the Commission instructed it to *"examine the nature and extent of community use of schools, the schools' use of non-school board owned facilities and the potential for joint funding of school-community facilities"*. As part of an examination of this issue, there was a need to determine the extent to which community/school linkages lead to a more effective school system, and to outline ways in which community/school linkages can be maximized. There is a logical connection between the two in that an education system exists both to meet the needs of the society which supports it and to develop individuals to their potential. In some jurisdictions community-based schooling is seen as a model supporting the curriculum, a means of preventing student alienation, or method to harmonize community development goals. The literature also suggests that strong community support for schooling has a positive effect on student outcomes. In chapter 7, Tom Clift was asked to determine the extent to which community/school linkages lead to a more effective school system, and to outline ways in which new and innovative community/school linkages can be introduced.

In this province, curriculum is developed and organized on the assumption that most students are grouped according to age. They cover a specified amount of material in one year at which point they are promoted to the next grade. The curriculum is organized into discrete packages of information and only one grade is taught in each classroom. Increasingly, these assumptions are no longer valid. As enrolments continue to decline and as teachers' awareness of individual differences grows, traditional approaches must be reassessed. In chapter 8, Regina Warren was asked to prepare an overview of this issue, the implications of non-graded/multi-graded curriculum delivery for other aspects of the system, and recommendations for change.

The face of change throughout the world has been so rapid in recent years that few can predict its consequences. Knowledge and information are the new currency. Knowledge produces technology, and technology generates knowledge. Together they produce change. The introduction of new technologies into the workplace, into our schools and eventually into our homes is becoming an increasingly important dimension of structural change. We have drifted from an industrial society, based on individuality, order, and linearity, to an information society, based on integration, interdependence, and nonlinearity. Information is changing how we work, how we play, how we relate to one another, and how we react to our environment. Our entire view of the world is changing a breakneck speed; yet, somehow, it is not fast enough. Says Naisbett, *"we are drowning in information but starved for knowledge."* (1982, p. 17) One cannot escape this onslaught of technology; it has no language barriers and no geographic boundaries. Virtually no area of human activity is untouched by it. It will require new skills on the part of workers, new relationships between workers and machines, and new partnerships between business and education. New training techniques will be required as greater flexibility and continuing upgrading of skills become a necessity. In chapter 9, Garfield Fizzard was asked to provide a comprehensive overview of distance education programs, including correspondence education, in Canada and to determine what potential exists for the effective use of high technology for program delivery, administration, communication, and professional development.

## Chapter 6

# SCHOOL COUNCILS

Jeannie House

> "Education is a partnership. It involves children, parents, governments and employers - both in the private and public sector."
>
> Dr. Gregor Ramsey, Chairman Higher Education Committee, Melbourne, Australia

### Introduction

Is education a partnership or is it a delivery system? Historically in Newfoundland and Labrador, it has been assumed that if indeed it is a partnership, then governments are the major partners. However, in educational systems in many countries and in many provinces in Canada, a quiet revolution is taking place. The process of schooling is moving from a "top-down" model, "delivering professionalized and bureaucratized educational 'services' to passive and apathetic students"(Seeley, p. 47), to a "collaborative" or "bottom-up" model of participative decision-making, where all groups who are affected by educational decisions participate in the process of making them. This fundamental change in process entails legislation opening up the education system to allow, and to recognise as necessary and valuable, school-level participation in decisions by parents, teachers, students and, by extension, interested members of the community. This equal-partner decision-making forms a new framework for education, with management and accountability at the local school level and accompanying changes in the existing top-down bureaucratic chain of command. Empirical studies show that these changes bring about remarkable improvements in educational achievement and in public advocacy for the education system. This is an exciting but as yet unexplored possibility for Newfoundland and Labrador.

The Royal Commission on the Delivery of Education in Newfoundland and Labrador commissioned this background paper on school-level structures in other educational jurisdictions which enable parents to participate in the education of their children, structures generally known as "School Councils," "Parent Councils," "Parent Committees" or "Parent Advisory Committees." There are wide variations in composition, responsibilities and mandates for these Councils, but they all have in common "a reorganization of the school district's decision-making structure so that many important decisions that directly or indirectly affect the education of children are made at the level of the local school" (National Committee for citizens in Education). This reorganization is taking place not only in response to pressure from parents and other interested members of the community, but also as a result of educational administrators' growing recognition of the importance of parental and community involvement in the education system. This is essential for the system to reach its maximum potential with the resources available.

### What is a School Council?

A School Council is a legislated school-level administrative committee structure enabling representatives of the local school community to have a real voice in educational decision-making. This Council serves as the primary forum at the school level and, as the mechanism for implementing shared decision making, is the key feature for the decentralization of authority over the management of the local school. It differs from the Home and School Association or P.T.A. (which are voluntary associations with no decision-making or advisory authority) both in its legislated place in the decision-making structure and in the breadth of its mandate. In this study, the local shared decision making committee will be referred to as the "School Council," although it has many different names and shapes in different jurisdictions.

### Composition of School Council

The principal is almost always a member of a school council and the main interest groups, parents, teachers and students, are well represented. Some councils have extended membership to school support personnel and community groups (such as business people, unions and other educators) to enrich the scope of school-community relations.

### Role of School Council

The School Council's function is to allow for local input in educational decisions in an education system that is at least partially decentralized.

The participation can take one of two forms:

1. Advisory. Here the final decision lies with the principal, the superintendent, or the school board, depending on which level of public participation is involved. In order for such advisory councils to be effective, there should be mandatory consultation with the appropriate school council and other committees with community participation at other levels in the system. In British Columbia the School Act of 1989 provides for the establishment of Parents' Advisory Councils to advise on "any matter relating to the school." These were established on the recommendation of a provincial Royal Commission on Education (1988) that "there is considerable public appetite, especially on the part of parents, for participation in local school affairs" in an "advisory capacity."

2. Direct responsibility. In this case, real decision-making power is transferred from the central board of education to individual school councils in such key areas as curriculum, budget and staff. In Chicago, for example, the 1988 state law provides for such councils, each composed of six parents, two local residents, a non-voting student member and two teachers. Their responsibilities include hiring and firing principals, approving budgets, firing incompetent teachers with 45 days notice and making recommendations on curriculum. The principals look after the daily running of school affairs. These councils have proved immensely popular, with 20,000 candidates running for 5,000 places. In Canada, the Yukon's Education Act, 1990 institutes a decentralization of the education system in response to parents' wishes for more control. Local School Councils are set up with responsibility for key areas: budget, curriculum, student attendance, selection of principals and dispute resolution.

School councils are directly involved in formulating educational objectives for their particular school and also contribute to establishing the basic educational aims of the central administration. For example, the "School Improvement Plans" formulated by school councils in Chicago and the "educational projects" by orientation committees in Quebec include educational goals and a plan for achieving these objectives which arise from and are tailored to the needs, strengths and weaknesses of the individual school population. These can differ considerably from school to school and from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. In Florida, for example, the focus has been on organizational change and scheduling. In California the focus for particular schools varies from literacy and reduction of drop-out rates to increased creativity. The educational plan formulated by local school councils usually differs from the type of uniform arrangement common to centrally controlled top-down systems, where objectives and curriculum are set by a central department of education and administered by large district school boards with little or no local consultation by either bureaucratic level.

## Administrative Linkages and Liaison for School Councils

The full integration of school councils into an education system with appropriate administrative structures and support linkages throughout the system is a long-term project that needs commitment at every administrative level. Some educational systems have well-established traditions of consultation with parents and other members of the school community. Participants at all levels have thereby developed an appreciation of the value of such consultation. Such systems are less likely to oppose an expansion of parent and community influence on decisions, and may even initiate or solicit it. Members of the community already expect to be involved on matters that concern them, and have developed the expertise needed to facilitate their participation. A fully-developed example of this type of well-grounded integration of parent and public participation can be found in Victoria, Australia. Here there is strong political support for participative decision-making in the school system as well as at each of the three administrative levels: central, regional and local.

> "One of the most important changes has been the increase in Parent and School Council involvement in schools. A partnership between parents and teachers is vital to the success of students." The Hon. Ian Cathie, M.P., Minister for Education, *Government Decisions on the Report of the Ministry Structures Project Team*, 1987.

School councils were first established in Victoria in 1975 by the Education (School Councils) Act. In 1984 the legislation was amended to give school councils joint responsibility with the principal for determining education policy. The system now provides for parent participation at central, regional and local school level.

1. Central level. Parents serve on a number of central policy committees on recent policy initiatives, on Commonwealth Special Purpose Programs, and on the School Improvement Program committee. A recent report on parent participation in Victorian schools states that "The parent and school council organizations have had a significant role in shaping and influencing central policy development and implementation," (Government of Victoria, p.13).

2. Regional level. At regional level there is a School Council Liaison Officer, a School Improvement Plan Officer and a Development Support Consultant. The different regions also have various task forces and support committees. These supportive administrative structures vary according to the level of support for parent participation in the regions. **The process of instituting greater parent participation is always in danger of being stalled by unsupportive state officials, even in a generally supportive regional situation**. As a senior officer in Victoria warns:

> "It is crucial to honour decisions the group have made. Parents will not participate if their (committee) decisions are ignored. They will only continue (to participate) if they are taken seriously" (quoted in *Parents, one of our most Valuable Resources*, p. 24)

This warning is echoed in North America,

> "participation without redistribution of power is an empty and frustrating process for the powerless" (quoted by Storey, 1989, p. 35)

3. Local level. At local school level in Victoria, the most effective school councils are strongly supported by the principal and teachers, report back to the Parent Club in the school as their constituency and are also members of other decision-making bodies such as the Participation and Equity Program(PEP) Task Force or the Integration sub-committee. They often have links with the local District Council and members on the regional umbrella school councils' association. These links within and outside the school provide a wide range of educational references and support groups which strengthen the sense of community ownership in the school.

### Need for System-wide structural mandates and policies

Without a change of policy throughout, the participation program will have much less impact:

"State policies, bylaws, guidelines, and funds for educational programs strongly influence or determine district and school leadership, teaching practice, and community support" (Epstein, 1987, p. 5).

At school level, Epstein also calls for a comprehensive program of parent involvement, stating that "It is not enough to mandate only parent advisory councils, or only parent-teacher organizations, or only parent volunteers at the school building."

### Legislation for School Councils

School councils have been legislated in many jurisdictions in recent years. This section gives brief descriptions of some of the most noteworthy international and Canadian examples.

U.K.: National Education Bill, late 1987, increasing the autonomy of schools to be run, both financially and administratively by individual boards of governors but with increased central control through the National Curriculum. This is a central government initiative fitting in with a conservative decentralization ethic according to guidelines set out by the management consultant firm, Coopers and Lybrand.

Australia: Victorian Government Education (School Councils) Act, 1975, amended 1984.

U.S.A: of 50 states, 47 responded to a questionnaire on state legislation on parent involvement: 20 had enacted parent involvement legislation, six had department of education written guidelines on parent involvement and 21 had neither legislation nor guidelines (Nardine and Morris). Eighteen states with parent involvement legislation provided for some form of school-based decision-making.

Canada: * British Columbia School Act, 1989. Parents' advisory councils may be established on the request of parents to advise principal and board.

* Alberta School Act, 1988. Parents may establish a school council for their school as an advisory body.

* Yukon Education Act, 1990. Elected school councils given personnel, programming and administrative responsibilities. Existing school committees can apply to be recognized as school councils.

* Saskatchewan Education Act allows board of education to establish a local school advisory committee (generally in rural areas). Also francophone parents and guardians of pupils in a designated program (French Language or Immersion/Bilingual program) form a "parents' council" to manage their local school.

* Ontario Education Act 1980, amended 1989, says that boards may establish School Board Advisory Committees with appointed members to make recommendations to board.

* Quebec's Education Act, 1988, mandates an Orientation Committee for each school with a wide range of elected members and wide powers, in addition to an advisory school committee of 5 to 25 parents of students in a school.

* New Brunswick Schools Act, 1984 sets up provincial level advisory committees with appointed members.

* Nova Scotia Education Act 1967, amended 1984, provides for boards of elected trustees (a level below the district school board) for one or more schools in a school district, to act as a liaison between the school board and the public.

* Prince Edward Island, Manitoba and Newfoundland have no legislation to encourage public participation in their education systems.

A quick survey of the Canadian legislation reveals that although all but three of the Canadian provinces legislate some form of parent or community involvement in the educational decision-making structure, three of these do not specify local level bodies such as school councils and only two provinces and one territory specify mandatory school level councils with wide decision-making powers (Saskatchewan for francophone parents and Quebec with its complex system of French and English-speaking, Protestant and Catholic, students). Quebec's legislation, possibly because of the wide powers given to the school councils, has the most detailed instructions on composition, establishment, operation, functions and powers. These clearly set the parameters for accountability, responsibility and function within the system.

In their study of U.S. legislation Nardine and Morris remark that "Some states have enacted parent involvement legislation using suggestive, rather than enforceable language," concluding that "It is difficult to assess the impact of legislation that merely suggests or encourages parent involvement without clear commitments or requirements for accountability" (Nardine and Morris, 1991, p. 365). Canadian legislation in the majority of the provinces also "suggests" by the use of the word "may". Only in Quebec and the Yukon is stronger, enforceable language used to mandate parent involvement as part of the system. **Without a strong mandate, the value of a school council can be nullified by an unsympathetic administrator at any level.**

In spite of this reservation, if an advisory process is mandated "the clear intent is that the advice will be influential" (Storey, 1989, p. 227). In the case of British Columbia, where the well-established tradition of parent and community involvement has led to wide-spread support throughout the system for education as a collaborative process, the advisory process was working well enough for the 1988 Royal Commission on Education to recommend that it be extended and improved.

The disadvantage of mandating parent involvement in areas where parents are not clamouring for participation is the potential difficulty of finding suitable volunteers for the School Council. This can be managed by an extensive program of inservice training to enable principals and staff at school level and administrators at board and province level to become advocates for participation. Such a strategy is encouraged in the Parent Participation Report for Victorian Schools and Storey's detailed prescriptions for an "advocate principal" giving parents the courage and feelings of self-worth needed to participate. The absence of a tradition of parent involvement and participation makes it difficult, and in some cases impossible, to achieve parent support for and understanding of the goals of the education system and for the particular activities of the school which are intended to achieve those aims. "Parent confidence," Storey remarks, "is vital to the success of learners" (Storey, 1989, p.8).

**The advantage of mandating mechanisms for parent involvement, must be stressed. It initiates a process which can only enhance educational achievement in the system**. Why would a system want to wait until the level of parent frustration and alienation grew too high to contain within a centralized structure? Without some avenue of mandated community consultation, parents are reduced to such drastic actions as keeping their children home from school or blocking roads to school buses in order to dramatize an unresolved and administratively unregarded problem. Jones and Falkenburg, in their evaluation of community schools in Alberta, point out that "Local representative decision-making process allows for problem solving strategies to be implemented at local level" (Jones and Falkenburg, 1989, p. 58).

" Education systems that have long-term community involvement show that centralized direction is not necessarily inconsistent with a substantial measure of local administration and the maintenance of community interest in education" (McLaren, 1974 p. 15 ). The U.K.(in Solihull and Cambridgeshire), Australia (in Victoria), Canada (in B.C., Quebec and Alberta, particularly in the Edmonton School District) and various jurisdictions in the U.S. all exemplify the combination of central control and local autonomy. A study on effective schools in the United States refers to this as "**directed autonomy**", pointing out that

> "researchers who have studied innovation in general have found that it is most likely to be successful when it combines elements of bottom-up planning and decision making with top-down stimuli and support in setting directions for and guiding the process of change" (Levine, 1991, p. 392).

Parent and school council organizations in Victoria, Australia felt that they had had "a significant role in shaping and influencing central policy development and implementation" (*Parent Participation Report*, p. 13) in spite of the presence of a fair measure of central control.

**Why School Councils?**

The impetus for change in the relationship between school and community has several different sources.

1. Reassessment of democratic institutions. The modern loss of confidence in big government and centralized institutions is reflected in the international reconsideration of educational structures: In the United States the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986), the Holmes Group (1986), a task force of education school deans, the National Governors' Association (1986) and the National Education Association/National Association of Secondary School Principals (1986), all "encourage the development of a framework of collegial and participative decision making at the school level," (Conley, 1989, p. 366) with management and accountability at the school level and changes in the existing top-down bureaucratic chain of command. Bruce S. Cooper points out that "very different assumptions and beliefs about the nature of school organizations" are involved here:

> "The "top-downers" stress control, regularity, standardization, and predictability - as do all good bureaucrats - while the "bottom-uppers" prefer autonomy, local decision making, decentralization, and professional discretion, all in order to shift authority to the level closest to the classroom." (Cooper, 1989, p. 381)

The industrial "provider-client" model of the "top-downers" builds a "delivery-system mentality". In this model learning is the product, students the clients and teachers the truck-drivers. Responsibility and accountability are monopolised by a central authority. A sense of helplessness and alienation from a depersonalized and remote authority leads to apathy and/or anger in those involved. Nelson contrasts this type of system, where "disappointment and hostility grow as a result of misunderstandings" about the system, to a partnership model, where there is mutual respect and each partner, administrator, parent, student and teacher, is responsible for the setting and attainment of goals (Nelson, 1988, p. 88).

2. Distrust of professionals. In a centralized education system, decisions are made by professional educators who often have little or no contact with the daily business of schooling. In an era where parents, teachers and other members of the community have more education than ever before and a wide bank of knowledge and experience to draw on, there is less inclination to accept without question central authority over local educational issues.

3. Local autonomy and accountability. Parent and citizen concern is generally at the local school level. Local decision-making for certain aspects of education leads to local accountability. In Florida it was explicitly mandated as far back as 1979 that "the individual public school shall be the basic unit of accountability in Florida" (Cistone, Fernandez and Tornillo, Jr., 1989, p. 395). The 1988 Royal Commission on Education agrees that "certain aspects of educational decision-making should be entrusted to the local level where accountability for such decisions can be rendered more directly," (*A Legacy for Learners*, B.C., 1988, p. 10).

Even without an explicit mandate, a collaborative decision-making process means that the community, because it has been part of the process, both understands and supports the goals of the school. In Dade County, Florida, "the success of local education reform . . . is principally the result of the collaboration and commitment of the school board/administration and the teachers union, which together have marshalled strong community support for the reform agenda" (Cistone, Fernandez and Tornillo, Jr., p. 393). The main forum for community participation is the School Council.

There has been concern by some researchers that in practice the school principal becomes more powerful, though Chapman, in her study of decentralization and devolution in Australia finds that "the expanded role of school councils, the establishment of administrative committees and the general expectation that relevant interest groups will be consulted on all issues, have operated significantly to limit the principal's decision-making discretion" (quoted by Storey, 1989, p. 230). Here the School Council acts as part of a system of checks and balances.

4. Educational advantage. **Whatever the motives involved, the most important principle to emphasize is that parent and community participation is an objective to be sought for more reasons than simply local control. The educational value is of utmost importance.**

> "No development has been as rapid or as far reaching in its implications as the growth in understanding of the educational importance of school-community relations . . . involvement in the exercise of responsible power over their own affairs makes the work of the classroom relevant to the life and problems of the community for members of the community." Ministerial Paper No. 4 "School Councils", 1983, Victoria, Australia.
>
> "Parental involvement is as important an influence on pupil performance as the quality of the teaching." (Becher, Evans and Knight, London, 1981, p. 49)
>
> "The finding of all the (35) studies were positive: parent involvement in almost any form appears to produce measurable gains in student achievement" National Committee for Citizens in Education, 1987 (quoted in Storey, 1989, p. 32).

Studies in education in all the countries mentioned in this report have concluded that **parent involvement is not only desirable but vital to the success of learners**. When parents are involved, more learning takes place. The School Council, therefore, as the structural body for parent advice and/or governance, is the central administrative unit in educational reform movements such as the Effective Schools movement and Accelerated Schools in the U.S. and Community Schools in Canada, the U.S., Australia and New Zealand. Whole school systems, such as that of the state of California, have been reorganized to recognize "the connections that link school curricula, family involvement, and student success" (Joyce Epstein, 1991, p. 346).

Epstein's statement that "'Parent involvement' is on everyone's list of practices to make schools more effective, to help families create more positive learning environments, to reduce the risk of student failure, and to increase student success" (Epstein, 1987, p. 4) is unfortunately a trifle optimistic. In Canada parent involvement is still treated with suspicion by a number of educational jurisdictions, even those where the educational levels are low.

### School Councils and the Parent Partnership

The concept of parent partnership is closely linked with that of school-based decision-making since it is at school level that the partnership must begin. Changing to a collaborative partnership system for education entails not only structural change in the system but also a change in attitude and expectations on the part of all players: parents, teachers, administrators, students and community members. The Ministry of Education in Victoria, Australia defines participation as based on the following principles:

- relationships based on mutual respect;
- collaboration in decisions about what is learnt and how it is taught;
- the active redress of disadvantage and discrimination;
- the empowering of the school community;

* processes of shared accountability.

Ministerial Paper, No. 2, "School Improvement Plan".

A model built on these principles has the flexibility to respond to local differences and special needs, both weaknesses and strengths. It mobilizes all resources in the school community, taking advantage of the special knowledge and expertise of administrator, parent, teacher and student, to formulate goals for the school that meet its needs and have the support of all those affected by the decisions. The shared ownership of those goals and decisions leads to shared responsibility for the results. Mutual respect between partners recognizes each one's right to participate. Schools are seen as responsive and welcoming, a meaningful part of the community.

There are two major changes that need to take place in a top-down system in order to establish a collaborative system:

1. Those who presently have the decision-making power need to recognize the importance and value of contributions from other parties in the system to enhance the learning environment. Administrative resistance to sharing power is often an obstacle to this essential element.
2. Those who do not presently have decision-making or advisory rights need to recognize the importance of their contribution to learning in the school. Parents whose opinions have been ignored in the past, parents who have been put off by the limited activities of a P.T.A., teachers whose enthusiasm and fresh ideas have been defeated by an inflexible curriculum, students who have never been listened to, all these will need encouragement to participate in education as a shared enterprise. This is the school community that will be empowered by a collaborative process.

Parents in B.C. sum this up when they point to the need for "a significant and fundamental change" towards a system which places a high value on "openness, mutual respect, flexibility, responsiveness, and involvement" (*Parents in Education,* B.C. Royal Commission on Education, Commissioned Papers: Vol 7, 1988, p. 23).

All parent partnership initiatives include a school council structure as the arena where the partners will meet to embark on the process of advice or governance, according to their mandate. Parent involvement in governance and advocacy (such as the School Council) is one of Joyce Epstein's five types of parent involvement, a comprehensive family-school partnership program widely used in studies on parent involvement for assessment and reference. The other four include:

1. The basic obligations of parents: children's health and safety, child-rearing, building positive home conditions to support school learning and behaviour.
2. The basic obligations of schools: communicating with parents about school programs and children's progress.
3. Parent involvement at school: parent volunteers assisting teachers, administrators and children in school; parents supporting student performances, sports; parents attending workshops or other programs for their own education or training.
4. Parent involvement in learning activities at home: requests from teachers for parents to assist their own children at home on learning activities coordinated with the children's classwork.

Epstein warns, however, that "parent involvement is everybody's job but nobody's job until a structure is put in place to support it." **Without this support, words about the importance of parent involvement are meaningless** (Joyce Epstein, 1987, p. 10). Some suggestions for these structures can be found in the January, 1991, edition of *Phi Delta Kappan,* which contains a special section on parent involvement (edited by Joyce Epstein) with a selection of articles detailing a wide range of specific activities at national, state, district and school levels "that may someday add up to a nationwide highway system of connections between schools, families and communities to promote the success of children in school," (Epstein, 1991, p. 344).

## School Councils and the Community

Two holistic school-based educational concepts that involve the community in collaborative decision-making have school councils as their administrative unit: the international concept of community schools and the effective or accelerated schools in the U.S.

1. Community Schools **Community education** in Canada, as defined by the Canadian Association for Community Education, is characterized by:

(a) Involvement of people of all ages.

(b) The use of community learning, resources and research to bring about community change.

(c) The recognition that people can learn through, with and for each other to create a better world.

In British Columbia, the basic premises of a **community school** are stated by the 1988 Royal Commission on Education (p.37) in more detail:

> that learning is a lifelong process;
>
> that people enjoy superior citizenship when they help make educational decisions which affect their lives;
>
> that communities contain many important human, institutional, and material resources of interest to school children;
>
> and that a local school can "serve as a catalyst for bringing community resources to bear on community problems."

In Alberta, the Interdepartmental Community School Committee has named ten characteristics in answer to the question "What is a Community School?":

1. **Community Related Curriculum**. Basic education is enhanced by relating the curriculum to real life situations in the community. Students go into the community to use available facilities and resources, and to provide service while they learn. In turn, community resources are brought into the school. Intense study of the local community becomes the basis for study of life in other communities and the world.

2. **Involvement of Parents**. There is an effective involvement of parents and other community members in helping to develop the curriculum of the school and in helping teachers through appropriate voluntary service.

3. **Collegiality**. A democratic philosophy is encouraged by the School Board and principal teacher in the administration of the school. Parents and other interested community people are regarded as allies.

4. **Everyone a Teacher**. The faculty includes teachers, working in co-operation with each other, and community adults and students.

5. **Everyone a Learner**. Although the education of the young is the priority, all members of the community are potential students, including pre-schoolers and adults of all ages. Educational activities involving people of all ages are encouraged.

6. **Interagency Co-operation**. The school regards itself as an integral part of a total community education system. The school co-operates with other community organizations and agencies to provide comprehensive educational, recreational, cultural and social services to people in the school attendance area.

7. **Facility Adaptation**. School facilities may be designed or modified with effective teacher and community involvement so that, ideally, the entire structure is designed to facilitate community use as well as to accommodate community education activities.

8. **Community Use**. The school facility is available for community educational, recreational, cultural and social use on an extended time basis daily and yearly. Community activities might be scheduled at any time during each operational day.

9. **Community Issues**. The school, by policy, encourages a study of problems and issues of significance to the community, often in co-operation with other agencies and organizations in the community.

10. **Sense of Community**. The school has a vital stated goal, which is to foster a sense of community. It assumes it is important that the people who live in its attendance area know and care about each other.

In this model, the school becomes the centre for community life with goals that reflect the needs and aims of the community. The partners in the educational enterprise are students, parents, school personnel and community members and organizations. Partnerships that benefit both parties can be set up between local business and school or unions and school, for example. All partners are represented on the school/community council that administers the community school, defines its mission and sets the framework for achievement. Schools, like the communities they serve, are seen as social institutions whose very existence is bound up with change and who need to be in a position to respond flexibly to those changes at the local level. Both the students and the community benefit from the reciprocal activities: the decentralized decision-making and problem-solving processes and collaborative philosophy contribute to the use and development of citizens' skills and lead to community development and community pride.

In Canada, the Alberta government has pioneered community education policy, principles and procedures, aiming to have 10% of Alberta schools as Designated Community Schools. British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Ontario and Quebec have made significant achievements in this area. East Vancouver's Britannia Community School, for example, is said to have "dramatically revitalized an older part of the city." On the other side of Canada in New Brunswick, the Nashwaaksis Junior High School was conceived as a community centre, with the public library, the local sports facilities, the forty acres of property and community meeting rooms planned as part of the school and operated and funded jointly by the City of Fredericton and the Department of Education of New Brunswick. The first ten years of operation have proved the worth of the symbiotic relationship between the public and the school. "Evidence of continued community support of the school is that more than $2.3 M has been raised during the past year towards the cost of an indoor pool provided for in the original plans" (Carroll, p. 15).

Community schools can be found revitalizing the community in many parts of the United States, Australia, Britain and New Zealand.

2. Effective schools models. Research on effective schooling has produced a number of guidelines on teacher effectiveness training which function best in an atmosphere of "directed autonomy," a mixture of local autonomy and central control. The effective school model can:

> "provide direction for decentralized planning and school-site decision making. An effective school process supplies district and school-level personnel with an over-arching mission: teaching and learning for all children." (Taylor and Levine, p. 395)

They claim that the concept of school-based management developed at the same time as the effective schools model for school improvement. A comprehensive improvement process is needed to restructure all levels of the system for local school management to be a success. Participative decision making has been found to be "a key variable in developing motivation and commitment among staff members", schools councils have usually been formed and teachers and principals trained in "techniques of collaborative decision making." Finally, a critical element of effective schooling is the full range of parent involvement.

One of the long-term successes is the School Development Program pioneered by Professor James Comer in two New Haven public schools. Between 1968 and 1984, one of the schools moved from a ranking of 32 out of 33 schools on standardized achievement tests to third in academic achievement; from 19 months below grade level in reading level by grade four to seven months, on average, above grade level; from poor attendance by teachers and students to first in the city in attendance; and from frequent and serious behaviour problems to no major behaviour problems. When comparable improvement was achieved in the second school, the program was extended to 10 other New Haven schools and several other districts.

Comer puts a major emphasis on the school management team (steering Committee or School Advisory Council) of parents, teachers and a child development specialist or staff member, as "the key to school improvement using our model" (Comer, 1986, p. 445). His emphasis for effective schooling is on creating the context for effective teaching and learning, with a "master plan" developed by the School Council, including "Building-level objectives, goals, and strategies in three areas: school climate, academics, and staff development." He evaluates his parent participation program as restoring "trust, mutual respect and agreement" and creating thereby a desirable school climate for teaching and learning.

A second example of an effective schools model can be found in the Accelerated Schools Project of Stanford University. This plan had the simple aim of getting all children "up to grade level by the end of 6th grade." Among other teaching and management structures, the staff knew they needed the "active cooperation and support of the parents . . . all parents involved in a variety of school, home and community activities" (Seeley, 1989, p. 46). The comprehensive plan to mobilize all possible resources and their strong sense of mission was built on a model of schooling in which "parent involvement is a necessity and the school is seen as a collaborative community learning center." The School Council is an essential structural ingredient of the partnership approach which has proved itself in these schools.

## School Councils in Newfoundland?

The Terms of Reference for the Royal Commission of Inquiry into the Delivery of Education in Newfoundland and Labrador point to "increasing demands for continued improvement in the quality of . . . education," "our geographic and demographic realities, resulting in small schools and declining enrolments" and "growing concern about the effectiveness and cost-efficiency of the Province's school system" as concerns to be addressed during the life of the Commission. The Terms of Reference specify organization and administrative structure, community relations, cooperation between boards, effective "delivery of programs and services" and accessibility to programs.

Newfoundland has an education system based on **the top-down delivery system model**, where decision-making power resides in central education institutions (the Department of Education and the Denominational Education Councils) and district-level school boards with little or no local school level participation. The Department of Education has no specific person or group concerned with parent involvement at any level or with the school level decision-making concept, nor do the D.E.C.s or most school boards in the province.

There are only isolated cases of parent or community participation, such as the school committee system under the Terra Nova Integrated School Board. These school committees are made up of the principal, teachers, parents from the school attendance area and students. They discuss local school issues such as discipline guidelines, property use and rental, and local problem solutions. Wider issues can be discussed and briefs presented to the school board. The local school board member is the liaison for the school committee and each assistant superintendent also acts as a contact person for two or three of the committees, attending some meetings throughout the year. Since 1969 the school committees have provided local input in this school board. The **co-operative attitude** embodied in this system also shows in their advocacy of the joint management arrangements with the Roman Catholic School board in several school areas under its jurisdiction. School board administrators feel that the school committees contribute positively to confidence in education in the district and are a successful mechanism for addressing local problems.

Other ad hoc parent or community attempts to take part in the system include the French Immersion program, francophone schooling and the continuing situation with Innu schooling in Northern Labrador.

Two recent studies of the education system in Newfoundland and Labrador both point to the importance of an effective system that is "geared to the needs and lifestyles of Newfoundlanders who choose to live in the outports" as well as those who live in towns (*Education for Self-Reliance*, 1986 and *Education and Labour Market Training*, 1990). A single centrally administered system with no local decision-making or advisory structures, and no value placed on participation by parents or other community members, is not designed to adapt to the needs of individual school communities. A less centralized system that included and valued public participation at every level (school, district and central) could use local level decision-making through School Councils, to mobilize all the support needed for an effective education system. This structure would be well suited to the difficulties of the thinly-populated rural areas of the province.

Studies on effective education demonstrate that community and parent support is **essential** to maximise the educational potential of an area. School Councils in Newfoundland could represent all elements in the community served by the school (parents, teachers, students and representatives from the community at large including people of different religious denominations). In a recent survey on public opinion about Denominational Education (1986), 79% responded that it was more important to go to school in their own community than in their own religion (McKim ed., p. 211). This finding shows the importance people still place on the school in their community: the school council gives them a continuing voice in the type of school it will be. The support that the religious denominations still command can be translated into action, together with representation from all other groups in the school attendance area, at community level in a way that reflects the wishes of each community.

Both the Economic Council and the Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment link an effective education system with appropriate economic development. Education is not an isolated activity confined to educators and children in school but "a way of upgrading the human capital of the society in a way suited to local economic opportunities" (*Education for Self-Reliance*, preface). A School Council is the administrative body through which the human resources of the community could be mobilized as partners in the challenge. The community school concept is a well-tried and successful model to follow for this.

The **empowerment of the community** that results from this educational model has advantages for all members of the community, adults and children. The reciprocal education partnership is a nurturing environment of mutual trust and respect for literacy and skills retraining programs that could be part of the community school's program.

## Conclusion

The study of school councils presents links with alternative structures and philosophies at present in place in other jurisdictions, both rural and urban, which offer new ways of addressing the educational concerns in this province:

* school councils;
* structural support throughout the system for parent and community participation;
* a collaborative decision-making process including all groups as equal partners.

Those jurisdictions that already have a tradition of parent and/or community participation in education are increasing their support and others that need new initiatives are beginning to change their systems to include participation from "all members of society in the process of education - business leaders, community members, parents, senior citizens" (Townsend and Cowdell, ed., p. 4). It is time to mobilize all sectors of Newfoundland society in improving education in this province.

*It is an irresponsible society which permits, usually by default, education to be left up to educators.*

H. A. Wallin

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## Chapter 7

# COMMUNITY USE OF SCHOOLS: EVOLUTION OR REVOLUTION

Thomas B. Clift

### Perspective

As such, community education can be broadly defined as a philosophy of education which attempts to: develop a feeling of belongingness in members of a community; involve all members of the community in establishing an educational process whereby programs are developed to answer their academic, social, economic, and recreational needs; and, use the centrality of the school, with the community as the basic resource, to pool the physical and human resources necessary to implement the requisite programs.

In reality, however, the development of new community-oriented school facilities or the optimum utilization of existing facilities requires a change in attitude, amongst suppliers and users of said facilities, and an adjustment of focus - which will result in an educational system which: views education as a lifelong activity - involving many processes - not all of which takes place in the traditional classroom environment; defines schools as facilities for the use of the community; seeks community involvement in the process which entrenches within each community the power to influence the design process - through the determination of its own needs coupled with insights as to how these needs can be served; and, attempts to coordinate all the resources available, both public and private, to meet the actual needs of individual communities.

This change, in both attitude and focus, must be evolutionary in nature and must be accepted by all parties involved in the education process, including: The Department of Education, the various School Boards and their administrators/superintendents, principals, teachers, municipalities, and most notably, the community residents - whose educational, cultural, athletic, and recreational needs are reflected in the design of future educational facilities and systems. For it is only through this process of community input that the present system will evolve to the point that it will be used by all community members - throughout their lives.

While a more revolutionary approach, i.e. design and implementation of such a facility/system by a School Board (without the aforementioned consultative process), may see the establishment of said facility, only community input and community identification of the need for such a facility will ensure its validity and ultimately its use.

The goals of this refocused system and the objective of its constituent members should be to build the spirit of the community and enhance the quality of life of its residents via the production of literate, right-minded and economically efficient citizens.

This report will review the factors which serve to influence community use of schools, comment on the present planning process for new school development, examine the present policies and administrative systems which influence community use of schools, and make recommendations in each of these areas for the design and implementation of a system which will strive to achieve the objectives which were noted in the previous paragraph.

While, out of necessity, our focus here will be on the system of education presently in use in Newfoundland and Labrador, we will also examine education systems in other parts of Canada (Ontario, Alberta and British Columbia) as well as certain well- known systems in the United States (Flint, Michigan) and those systems which have been successfully established in other parts of the world

(England and Australia).

### Factors Influencing Community Use of Schools

While, in Newfoundland in particular, the Schools Act grants School Boards in this province the right to make facilities available to the community, there are certain factors or barriers, which exist, that serve to limit the effective use of schools by community members. These factors may be broadly classified as: Economic, Administrative, and Infrastructural.

**Economic Factors**: Traditionally, economic factors have been most frequently quoted by school officials as their primary reason for not extending community use of their respective schools to the general public. Concerns with respect to increased maintenance and operating costs including heating, lighting and supervision and the fees which must be charged to cover these costs, have dominated the discussion. Today, perhaps the result of countless attacks on their 1970's policies which were seen to foster indiscriminate waste of expensive schools, most Boards seem to have progressed beyond economic concerns and consider usage in light of the opportunity cost of having such facilities lying idle. Part of the problem in the 1970's, as well, was that many Boards did not have formalized policies in place which could provide direction to administrators on economic matters related to community use. In 1974, only 61 percent of Boards had a policy on community use, while only 39 percent of principals noted awareness of said policies.

**Administrative Factors**: The 1980's witnessed an era of heightened awareness of the demands being placed on School Boards for increased community use of schools and as a result virtually all School Boards either improved existing policies or developed new policies to deal with the administrative issues related to community use of school facilities. A recent examination of the majority of Board policy statements on community use of schools indicates that virtually all of those examined now have policies in place which deal with administrative matters such as: planning and scheduling use; prioritization of access by both organized and unorganized groups; coordination of supervision; reciprocity between school and community groups; as well as the more mundane issues of equipment usage, storage and unfortunately - vandalism.

Indeed, as we enter the decade of the 1990's the barriers are no longer with the Boards or their policies, the barriers, if any exist within the system now, are either attitudinal - i.e. a principal who exercises extreme caution and tends to be very protective of his or her school, or infrastructural - i.e. physical design barriers which limit use.

**Infrastructural Factors**: Unfortunately, many of the schools which are being used today in Newfoundland and Labrador were built prior to the beginning of this era of enlightened thinking with respect to community usage of schools ( the early 1970's). Thus, many of these schools have not been designed to accommodate community use - they are not seen to be 'night-usable'. That is, there are certain costs or problems which arise as a result of after-hours use that relate specifically to the design inadequacies of our older schools.

This is also true of many of the schools which have been built since the mid-1970's - while the thinking with respect to community use has changed, the design and consultation process has not kept pace with the thought process.

An examination of the construction dates of Newfoundland's 468 schools indicates that a mere 17 percent of these schools have been built since this time of enlightened thinking with regard to greater community use of schools - 1975. Assuming that, where possible, government officials will attempt to retrofit the remaining 83 percent of schools (i.e. those built prior to 1975) the area of immediate concern should be the establishment of policies and procedures which will ensure greater community usage of these older 're-modelled' schools.

Of equal importance will be the establishment of similar criteria which will ensure that community use is an integral part of the design criteria for newly constructed schools.

### The New School Planning Process

The process which the various School Boards in Newfoundland follow in the development of a new school, while being standardized at the Department of Education level - via the New School Planning Manual, is not applied uniformly by the respective Boards and does not have community use as a primary focus.

Amongst the larger Boards, in particular, the processes while being similar and including certain requisite steps - does not specifically address the issue of community use. The following process is somewhat typical:

(1) justification of need - enrollment projections/verification;

(2) needs assessment - via the formation of an advisory committee (including: assistant superintendent - planning, principals of older schools being merged, the principal and vice-principal of the new school, principals of new schools which have recently been built, Home and School Association);

(3) conformation to the Department of Education Planning Manual;

(4) consultation with the Department of Energy;

(5) development of site/building plans;

(6) consideration of municipal building codes/requirements;

(7) tender call/awarding.

With the exception of the procedure of consultation with the Home and School Association or Parent Teachers Association, no other community based organization is consulted as a matter of course. That is not to imply that their concerns and needs will not be considered but rather that their advice is not actively sought.

A closer examination of the School Planning Manual, 1985, indicates that provision for community use/community needs assessment is not referenced in either the Procedures for Submitting Proposals or the Educational Facility Needs Report. In fact, coordination with other Municipal, Provincial or Federal Departments or Agencies is suggested only as a means to ensure compliance with the various regulations that each agency has with respect to building construction or renovation.

The superintendents of the two largest Boards noted that while there is a school building/planning manual and a list of requirements for a standard school, these documents refer more to what articles should be included in the school as opposed to how it should be designed. They further commented that while other government departments and agencies have used the school facilities in the past, however, they have not had any input into the design of new facilities.

The absence of any formalized process of consultation with community groups and municipalities is seen to be a significant flaw in the present manual/system.

While Tulk, Nolan, and Lee, when writing on this subject in 1973-74, espoused the need for a more consultative approach and their desire to see the school as a facility for community use and community involvement, it appears that little has been done during the past seventeen years to formalize the process of community consultation to ultimately ensure that our new schools are indeed community schools.

It should not be implied from this statement that few if any initiatives have been undertaken, but rather that the impetus for change, in almost every case, is community based. The recently announced agreement between the Western Avalon Catholic School Board, the Department of Education and the Department of Municipal Affairs - Recreation, Sports and Fitness Division is typical, in some respects, in that the impetus for change has come from a community group - in this case a recreation association. What is not typical about this initiative and a similar initiative in Makovik is that the Department of Education and the Department of Municipal Affairs have joined forces to allow for an enhancement of the originally planned facility.

As the Western Avalon (St. Catherines) facility is already under construction, neither the Recreation, Sports and Fitness Division or the community Recreation Association have had input into the infrastructure design. However, they will have input into the design of the policies and procedures which will determine the nature and extent of community usage of this facility.

On a very positive note, because the school in Makovik is still in the planning stages, it is hoped, indeed it is desirous, that both the Department of Education, the Department of Municipal Affairs and the local sponsoring agencies will all have input into facility design as well as facility use. For the Department of Municipal Affairs, these projects represent the culmination of 10+ years of initiatives and policy papers. Department officials appear quite enthused and are optimistic about the possibilities for future endeavours. As a matter of policy, the Department of Municipal Affairs now sends copies of the information relating to the new Recreation Cost Grants Program to all groups which request information relating to the establishment of new facilities/infrastructure.

From the broader perspective, it has become quite clear that the continued growth in demand for educational upgrading and re-training, coupled with the demands currently being placed on the present system by an increasingly active and mobile public, will serve to further emphasize the need for prior planning. As the list of possible activities grows, it will no longer simply be appropriate or feasible to list the myriad of activities which are possible but rather, it will become a matter of deciding which activities and facilities will meet the present and future needs of the community - even before construction is started - as will be the case in Makovik. While it will likely be impossible to anticipate all future needs, the fact that various Departments, agencies and School Boards have gotten together to try is indeed encouraging.

As noted by Nolan in 1973,

> "The planning process must change from what it has been in the past, in that the community must become integrally involved in planning schools which have community use designed into them. The most logical way of guaranteeing that this desirable approach be approximated is to encourage co-operative planning, involving all recreational authorities, community groups and civic officials."

While these comments are almost two decades old, they are as valid today as they were in 1967 and 1973 - perhaps even more so. It would appear that from the May 15, 1974 conference in Gander - which reviewed the community use of schools - to the present day, while various Boards moved to improve their present policies to regulate the use of existing facilities, relatively little has been done to incorporate community needs assessment into either the planning or design of new facilities.

In his summary and concluding remarks related to planning, Nolan made the following recommendations with respect to the school planning process:

1. that all groups interested in community education be given the opportunity to influence the planning process to ensure that schools be constructed and equipped with 'use by all community members' as the primary function;
2. consideration be made for the establishment of the following areas:
    (a) office space for use by community members - to serve as a control center for after-hours use;
    (b) storage facilities - for equipment and project related requirements;
    (c) a ground floor location for any areas designed for community use;

(d) locating said areas in an isolated zone - with independent access - and zoned utilities and washrooms.

Warren, in his 1976 study on the community use of schools, further suggested the need for multi-use planning - including the provision for special areas such as music, art, consumer studies, and industrial arts, to serve community groups as well as day students. He noted that schools should be planned with multiple use in mind.

Thus while the system has progressed somewhat - particularly during 1990-91 - planning for community use has not been a priority and in most cases is not considered automatic. In fact, while the Schools Act provides for permission to be granted, for a school under a particular Board's jurisdiction, for community use during outside hours, and while a Board may enter into an agreement for joint construction or ownership, neither of these activities appear to be encouraged - at least the legislation is not written from that perspective.

**Present Policies and Administration Systems**

As was evidenced in previous sections of this report, optimum utilization of school facilities by the broader community is influenced by the current legislation, the present planning process and most certainly is a function of both the present board policies with respect to community use and the attitude of those individuals - superintendents and principals - who are charged with implementation of these policies. The absence of a definitive statement on community use or the poor administration of said policy, perhaps even more than poor school design, can severely restrict community use of existing or planned schools.

Thus, in the area of policy development and administration we have two potential barriers: (1) the policy statement or the absence of a stated policy; and (2) the administrator who is responsible for coordinating community use.

With respect to the establishment of policy statements relating to community use, Nolan in 1973 found that, of those Board representatives surveyed, 61 percent maintained that they had a policy regulating use, while only 39 percent of those principals surveyed were aware of these policies. Warren, in 1976, found that of the 31 Boards surveyed, 18 (58 percent) had formalized written policies to guide administrators with respect to community use of school facilities. As of November 1991, 100 percent of the Boards that responded to the 1990-91 survey on community use of schools, noted that policies had been developed or improved upon in the area of community use. As well, virtually all have developed an application form which highlights the terms and conditions of use. (Note: 22 of 29 Boards responded to this survey.)

On a positive note, many of these statements are quite detailed and well designed. The majority of these appear to have been initially drafted in the mid 1970's - during the period when Dr. Warren, Mr. Nolan, Mr. Lee, and Mr. Tulk were writing at length on this issue - and have been recently revised to reflect the needs of their respective communities.

Unfortunately, when one considers community use from an educational as well as a recreational perspective and then proceeds to examine the nature and extent of present usage, the results are somewhat discouraging. Recreational activities clearly predominate over all other after-hours activities, followed by community service groups, etc., with the lowest proportion of available time being allocated to community education activities. For Newfoundland, as the province with the highest illiteracy rate and the highest percentage of adults with less than a Grade 9 education - both double the national average - this is perhaps even more discouraging than one might have originally considered.

This of course begs the question: Are schools not being used more frequently for educational purposes after-hours because they are already booked by the recreational groups? or: Are they not being used because there is no organization in place in most communities to facilitate the coordination of educationally based programs? The answer, it would appear, seems to be more the latter than the former. In many communities there appears to be neither the demand for nor the willingness/infrastructure to support such programs. Tulk, in 1974, commented that in his research he encountered a number of principals who suggested that those people who needed academic training the most, did not avail of the opportunity but enrolled in many cases in hobbies and crafts. One of these principals, he noted, indicated that illiteracy appeared to be as much a frame of mind as it was an inability to read and write.

While to some extent these attitudes still exist today, 27 percent of adult Newfoundlanders have less than a Grade 9 education - including 43 percent on the Port au Port Peninsula, the news it seems is not all bad. A new program was recently developed in Port au Port to develop a community school, a facilities sharing arrangement between St. John Bosco School and a group of former National Sea Products workers, witnessed the installation of an 18-unit Plato micro-computer lab in the school - to be used during the day by the school children and to be used after school hours to re-train the laid off workers. The recent announcement by the Minister of Municipal Affairs with respect to revisions in the Recreation Capital Grants Program is a further step towards increased utilization of schools by their respective communities.

This particular revision was implemented to encourage the co-operation of regional groups to:

(a) develop regional facilities
(b) optimize financial resources
(c) avoid duplication of costly facilities, and
(d) provide residents with a greater variety, of better quality, better utilized services.

While to a large degree the aforementioned initiative is aimed at the expansion of recreational facilities, in the words of Dr. Warren, the present Minister of Education:

> "This is an important first step towards the re-establishment of community use as a departmental priority and towards the development of school design parameters which set technological sophistication and community use as design priorities."

However, the optimum Community School Program will involve much more than extended use of school facilities. Such a program should be designed:

(a) to increase the knowledge of the community about the school and its service to the community;
(b) to encourage greater participation of individuals in the use of the school;
(c) to extend the school's service as a cultural resource in the community;
(d) to encourage the involvement and co-operation of other agencies within the community;
(e) to enhance a sense of identity and esprit de corps among the people of the school community;
(f) to build a sense of involvement and commitment in the school as a centre of service in the community;
(g) to assist schools in making greater use of community services.

Programs such as these are by their very nature evolutionary, thus caution should be exercised to ensure that the communities involved do not perceive these programs as being forced upon them. In fact, experience in other parts of Canada and North America suggests that models of community education have worked best when the impetus has come from community residents/leaders and not when the concept was forced upon them by well intentioned bureaucrats.

## Requirements of the Ideal Community School Program

While the focus of this paper to this point has been with the development, delivery and administration - from a policy perspective - of community use of schools, we must now turn our attention to the human resources and promotional requirements of an effective community use of schools program.

As was noted in the analysis of the present policies and administrative systems, it is important to realize that the use of facilities cannot be forced upon the community, the initiative for change in infrastructure or policies must come from within the community.

Glendinning when commenting, in 1972 in Ontario, on the apparent concern for greater community involvement in educational affairs, stated that, at that time:

> .....educationists were wrestling with the necessity for creating a better, educational climate in the community. Parental involvement in, and understanding of the school programs, were considered to promote more positive attitudes in the home. Direct avenues of communication and involvement were explored in an endeavour to enhance the quality of education.

To fulfil this need, many Boards moved to establish school committees, with the expressed purpose of giving the community a more direct voice in educational matters.

> .....the purpose of such a committee would be to aid the principal and his staff in interpreting the school to the community, to keep the principal and staff informed and aware of the needs of the community, to support their school in its relationship to the School Board, and generally to provide for and maintain a degree of local interest in the school among people whose school trustees will be more remote than formerly.

These discussions and the committees which were subsequently formed ultimately led to a more in-depth examination of the proposal to establish a community school. After extensive consultation with the School Board at Flint, Michigan, the Ontario Board of Education made a number of recommendations and set out certain objectives which would see a Community School Program established - the initial project being for a two-year period. This period being deemed necessary to:

1. .....provide sufficient time for the coordinator of community schools programs to proceed carefully along evolutionary, developmental lines without the urgency implied by a trial period of one year. This two year period would be considered more appropriate as the first phase of a project designed to meet the ultimate needs of school communities;
2. .....offer assurance to the Department that the Board was fully committed to the success of the project, beyond the period of Departmental assistance;
3. .....serve to encourage the Department of Education to see such programs as a continuing area for grant assistance.

While the Ontario Board's short range goals were to encourage greater public use of school facilities and a greater degree of public involvement in education, the long-term goals appear to be much more evolutionary in nature - having a much broader scope. The ideal program, based on the Ontario Board's Terms of Reference is seen as one which is designed to (as noted in the previous section): see the school as a cultural resource in the community; encourage the involvement and co-operation of other agencies within the community (i.e. recreation commissions); build a sense of involvement and commitment in the school as a centre of service in the community; and assist schools in making greater use of community services.

Such an initiative, the Board concluded, must be seen as evolutionary in nature and should not be imposed upon communities, rather communities should be encouraged with development being in accordance with the interests and insights of the people from these communities.

The Ontario Director of Education stated:

> .....community use activities may not develop along identical lines, or according to a particular

time schedule, and their variety and complexity might be as great as the number of school committees in a particular area, and the degree of interest shown by individuals.

Effectively encouraged, the concept of community schools develops over a period of time out of a growing awareness that the school is more than a 'knowledge factory' or even a hardware facility. It is, or can become, a cultural cohesive force for the cultural and recreational benefits of all who share it.

With respect to the human resources requirements of such a system, in establishing the responsibilities of the Coordinator of Community School Programs, the Director of Education further commented on the role of the Coordinator and the desired approach:

> The Coordinator is not an educator per se, nor a superintendent nor even committed in the usual educational sense. On the other hand the co-ordinator is all of these things and many more. This characteristic will be one of the challenges since it must be learned by school personnel and members of the community alike.

Specifically, the role of Coordinator was defined as follows:

The Coordinator shall occupy a line position, responsible to the Director of Education. He (or she) shall serve as a resource coordinator in the school communities throughout the jurisdiction with the following intent:

- to assess the interests and needs of the various school communities throughout the countries;
- to meet with various groups and agencies which show an interest or desire to further their involvement in programs or activities involving the schools or facilities owned or operated by the Board of Education;
- to co-operate with school principals and staffs in promoting or developing community programs or activities related to the schools;
- to offer, as invited, information, ideas, assistance and guidance to groups or agencies interested in developing programs or activities in school communities;
- to foster, in co-operation with the principals, ways by which schools can extend into the community;
- to assist schools in utilizing the various services and resources of the communities;
- to assess the development of the project during the first year and report to the Board through the Director of Education.

It shall not be the responsibility of the Coordinator to coordinate, timetable, or grant permission for the use of individual schools or facilities. It shall not be the role of the Coordinator to unilaterally introduce, initiate, describe or control, programs or activities in a community.

The general thrust of the Coordinator's role seems to have the threefold intent of:

1. Making community education a reality by evolutionary rather than legislative means;
2. facilitating a change in attitude of a whole school community, including professionals as well as laymen; and
3. allowing him sufficient latitude to engender trust from the community as a whole.

The director of the Ontario Board of Education, in his concluding commentary with respect to the approach which a coordinator might take to facilitate increased community use of schools, suggested that the most reasonable approach to use at the outset would be to begin gently in areas or regions that have expressed interest, need or desire. He cautioned that the objective is to provide for greater use of the school facility and to link the school and its community in mutually acceptable relationships. Finally, he noted that this may be difficult without the principal feeling he has lost his leadership role and without the community feeling that it is a second class citizen, 'permitted' to use the otherwise secure institution.

Despite the aforementioned caveats, the Ontario Community School Program, while taking into consideration the unique nature of the educational and community requirements of the various regions of Ontario, is entirely consistent with most established philosophies of community education:

1. The Board's directives clearly indicate that the community education process is an evolutionary rather than revolutionary development;
2. the process, to succeed requires attitude change on behalf of all parties and individuals involved - lasting attitude change is also an evolutionary occurrence;
3. the long range goals of the program are to build a spirit of community and make the school a cultural resource in the community.

From a philosophical and administrative perspective, it is difficult to argue against the system proposed by the Ontario Board of Education - it is certainly in keeping with the accepted philosophies of community school programming. At the same time, it would seem reasonable to expect a similar system, if enacted, to work in Newfoundland and Labrador. However, there is one important difference between the two systems. In Ontario, a regional Board administers all schools within its geographical jurisdiction, whereas in Newfoundland, there may be several Boards within the same geographical area - one Board for each denominational cluster (Roman Catholic, Pentecostal, etc.) - with each Board having ownership and jurisdiction over their respective facilities.

As a result, coordination of community-based activities with- in a particular region may be more difficult, as the 'coordinator' will have to cope with a number of different Boards, each one having its own policy on community use of schools, each with its own priorities with respect to community use.

In so much as building ownership affords the owner certain rights and privileges, this may, in the case of certain Boards or regions, pose significant problems.

While the Newfoundland Department of Education may strive to go as far as Ontario in facilitating community use of schools, it may have to set somewhat less optimistic goals, in the shorter term, regarding community use, or it may have to consider the development of more standardized policies with respect to community use - a difficult task given the ownership issue.

At this stage it is appropriate that we examine other Community Use Programs in use in Canada, the United States, New Zealand, Australia and England, in an attempt to find an optimum solution for Newfoundland based on those in use elsewhere in the world.

## Community Schools in Canada and Beyond

The relatively slow progress with respect to community use of schools and community school development in Newfoundland over the past 15 years is not unique to this province. In Alberta and British Columbia - provinces with significant resources relative to Newfoundland - progress in the area of community use of schools has also been slow. In British Columbia less than two percent of all schools have been designated as community schools (29 of 1,498). While in Alberta, the Alberta Community School Programme in 1986 set as its objective to have 10 percent, or 160 schools, as designated Community Schools by 1990.

The Association for Community Education in British Columbia (ACEBC) was formed in 1976 with its primary objective being the promotion of all aspects of community education and community schools in British Columbia. Like many similar associations throughout North America, its fundamental beliefs include:

1. learning as a life-long process;
2. education should respond to intellectual, recreational, cultural, economic, social and

emotional needs of people in a community;

3. people have a deeper understanding of the process when they are a part of it;
4. a community is a group of individuals with diverse needs - which we as members must strive to accept and understand;
5. a greater sense of community emerges and valuable skills are learned when people in a community come together to manage the resources of that community;
6. important resources exist within a community, and residents gain from sharing these resources within the community.

The relatively slow growth of community education in British Columbia is in part a result of a lack of commitment to the concept by the B.C. government through its Ministry of Education. Presently, the Public School Act in British Columbia makes no reference to community schools or community education. The power of School Boards is determined solely by legislation. There is a lack of definition in the present Act regarding community schools /community education, which is forcing School Boards to: (a) make decisions involving community problems, and (b) provide programs beyond the traditional role of education, so that the needs of the community school can be addressed. Specifically:

1. the role of community school coordinator is not defined;
2. the Act does not include a definition of, or the legislative requirements relating to community schools/community education, its function and personnel requirements.

The present education policies of the British Columbia Ministry of Education do not actively encourage the development of community schools, in fact, many school districts do not have any community schools. Development of the existing community schools appears to have been a community initiative as opposed to a Ministerial initiative.

In British Columbia the community school appears to be some- what of an anomaly. The Public School Act does not reference community schools or the concept of Community Education, nor does it provide for funding of existing or planned community schools.

While nearly all schools in Alberta exhibit many of the characteristics of a community school: inter-agency co-operation, citizen involvement, volunteerism, local leadership, life-long education, and a sense of community, the so called 'designated Community Schools' set out to exhibit, in a written, renewable program plan (charter), all of the characteristics of a true community school. The objectives of the Alberta Community School Programme are very similar to those in British Columbia and those previously referenced in commentary relating to community schools in Ontario.

## The Status of Community Schools in the United States

Historically, in the United States, the Community Education network evolved from a few strong local projects into a national model. The evolution and development began with these local projects, which then received training and technical assistance from University-based, Mott Foundation - supported regional training centers, followed by state education agency interest - fostered by Federal funds, all in turn reinforcing further local development. This evolution created local activity which resulted in the organization of state associations for Community Education.

While activity at both the state and local levels has increased in recent years, Community Education programs exist at varying levels of development in different states. Some states, like Florida and Minnesota, have highly developed Community Education networks and many comprehensive local projects involved in innovative programming. Other states, like Oregon, have highly developed local comprehensive programs, but are rebuilding their state-level network. Then there are states like New York which has had recent rapid growth in state funding with support for over 20 comprehensive demonstration projects. Still others, like Idaho, are just beginning to develop state-level Community Education networks as well as programs at the local level. Some states, like Kentucky, have had growth in funding and expanded integration with K-12 programs. Others, like Texas and Alaska, have suffered either the loss of or a great reduction in the level of state Community Education funding, yet have experienced little reduction in the number of quality local projects.

This diversity among states goes beyond the obvious differences in the levels of development. It also includes a diversity in the agencies and organizations in a state-level network. A state network may include any combination of state education agency, institutions of higher education, state associations, active local projects, and other interested and/or co-operating agencies. Even within states with seemingly mature networks and programs, changes in personnel and leadership and restructuring within state Departments of Education have necessitated network rebuilding efforts.

A cursory examination of the profiles of state networks and local projects reveals an important conclusion with respect to Community Education development. While a few exemplary local projects can exist without a state network, the absence of a strong local network will negate the possibility of establishing a strong state network. Again, as we have seen throughout the literature on this subject, the impetus for change must come from the grass-roots/community level. Furthermore, where state funding and technical assistance support local projects, the strongest and most innovative programs are found. In the final analysis, state networking and national networking need local projects - the stronger the locals, the stronger the state and national networks.

The Mott Foundation. No discussion of Community Education would be complete without a reference to the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation. The foundation has a long history of supporting local projects, providing training and technical assistance and encouraging the development of strong state and national networks. The Mott Intern Program, which has trained thousands of community educators, in subsequent years became known as the National Center for Community Education. Perhaps one of the most significant differences between the community use alternatives in the United States, as opposed to Canada, is that as early as 1974, the U.S. Federal Government, via the Community Schools Act, established the Community Education Program of the U.S. Office of Education. The Act enhanced the legitimacy of Community Education and provided almost $20 million over a six-year period to enhance the Community Education Program.

In more recent times, 1985, the Mott Foundation appointed a Community Education Endowment Planning Task Force - its mandate being the identification of the functions critical to the continued development of Community Education. This group and its work resulted in further work by the National Community Education Association's Task Force on state Community Education. This latter group identified five major elements needed to ensure a strong Community Education presence in each state:

1) **Leadership** - people with a vision of what Community Education could become;
2) **Networking** - the intentional collaboration of state and local Community Education leaders;
3) **Legislation & Funding** - support from local and state governments;
4) **Training & Technical Assistance** - efforts to help individuals and groups improve their Community Education skills;
5) **Identity & Support** - strong visibility and support of local Community Education at the state and local levels.

### The Status of Community Schools in Australia

While the roots of Community Education in Australia can be traced to the 1870's, the advent of universal secondary education just after the Second World Ward was seen as a major factor in the eventual re-emergence of Community Education in the 1970's. In Australia the revitalization came from a position developed for the use of Physical Education and Recreation facilities that was based upon

Community Education ideology. Many of these concepts/positions became components of the subsequent legislation, which brought into being school councils in all state run schools in Victoria and enabled those school councils to use school facilities for Community Education.

Through various means Community Education activities are funded by Federal, state and local Government agencies, by trusts, service and charitable organizations, by churches, and local community groups and through the user pays system. One of the most substantial contributions to Community Education from both a financial and organizational sense is made by the Federal Government. However, organizationally most Community Education is looked at from the state perspective. Each state of Australia has its own priorities for schools and communities and these are reflected by the decisions that have been made. By far the most significant feature of the changing educational scene in Australia is the introduction of community centres offering adults a place to learn without the constraints and pressures imposed by formal institutions.

These changes are reflected in the current thinking with respect to Community Education in Australia. It is presently defined as follows:

1. It is about education, that is people developing new skills, new knowledge, and new confidence;
2. It is about communities, about using resources in them, about integrating learning with other aspects of living and increasing community co-operation and understanding;
3. It ought to be about empowerment, about helping people to gain power over their own lives, thereby working towards a more equal distribution of power in our society.

What is most striking about this definition is the high degree of consistency which it exhibits relative the current definitions being used in Canada and particularly in the United States. The influence of American educated Dr. Ian Bennett is considerable. Thus in many ways one may suggest that the present Australian model of Community Education is patterned after the recent American initiatives.

## The Status of Community Use of Schools in England

Recent legislation in England is curiously silent about Community Education, in fact the 1988 Education Reform Act removes the word 'community' from its statement of aims, preferring the similarly undefined 'society'. Ministerial responses show that those responsible for drafting legislation have community use of schools in mind, but have not detailed use conditions in the current legislation. The community school is defined as one in which there are non-school activities which are under the management of the school.

Not unlike their counterparts in Australia and North America, community educators in England offer five criteria to be met by community education in any form. These include: access, involvement, shared governance, use of the community as a learning resource, and a relationship with life-long learning. The changes required for the development and use of community resources in education or other areas such as Health, have not been identified by government, rather they have been left to develop piecemeal despite generally backward-looking priorities.

While the English recognize that contributions from other parts of the community will be an integral part of the shared responsibility for education, via new partnerships, certain existing partnerships and administrative responsibilities are changing dramatically. The chief officers of the local education authorities are unsure as to what their role will be. These officers have been among the first to acknowledge that there will be in the future a greater devolution of management responsibility to schools than has been generally practised before; that schools in their local settings will have greater discretion for the use of professional time and resources.

In the United Kingdom, close matching of school and community interests, needs and achievements is desired by all: pupils, parents, professional and support staff, employers and others.

However, many believe that the influence of ownership of influencing process and the subsequent degree of collaboration that is required may take five to eight years to achieve. While the requisite legislation will be in place in the near future, it is generally recognized that the development of these relation- ships cannot arise from legislation alone but will require careful and conscientious efforts by all the shareholders.

Educators and policy makers in the United Kingdom appear to lag the North American Model with respect to community needs assessment and community use provision. While they recognize that parents of school-aged children often represent only 25% - 30% of local households, and that the other majority groups of non-parents perceive schools as providing no direct benefit for them unless they are involved in other ways such as adult study or dual-use recreational facilities, and while they further recognize that factors such as the significant increase in employment of women, the greater incidence of one-parent families, early retirement and improved longevity, collectively will create new demands on school-community facilities, at this time, about all that has been conceded is that in the future United Kingdom schools should be organized and function on the premise that they exist to serve the entire community.

Clearly, the absence of definitive legislation and appropriate organizational/management structures have served to place the development of community schools in England significantly behind the pace of development witnessed in the United States or Canada.

## Summary and Conclusions

While some progress has been made in Newfoundland and Labrador, particularly during the past few months, with respect to increasing community-school linkages and maximization of community use of schools, in the broader Canadian and North American context the Newfoundland educational system lags significantly behind the education systems of Ontario, Alberta, British Columbia and those in many states, notably Michigan, Minnesota and Florida, with respect to community-school linkages and usage.

In short, the development of community-school linkages with the objective of enhancing the quality of life of respective community members via increased education/training, does not appear to have been a priority of the Department of Education in recent years. The only activity which has taken place at the Board or Department level over the past fifteen years has been the implementation or improvement of existing policies which serve to influence community use of schools - the majority of which is recreation oriented.

At the Department and Board levels, community use requirements have rarely been incorporated into the design parameters of new or re-modelled schools. The present and proposed Schools Act makes few references to community-school linkages. In both instances where community-school linkages are noted in the legislation, the words/phrases 'permit' and 'subject to prior approval ...may enter...' are used to describe appropriate behaviour of administrators when dealing with community use and community linkages. This is surely not appropriate language for a governing body which is striving to encourage such linkages. Perhaps as a result of the literal interpretation of said legislation, neither the present policies which govern use, or the planning process which guides new school development or re-modelling, actively seeks the input of either community associations, individuals, or other government departments and agencies, be they municipal, provincial or federal.

One should not infer from this discussion that few, if any, initiatives have been undertaken, rather that the impetus for change, in most instances, has come from the community. In many respects, this is an encouraging sign, as most who write in this field agree that to be effective, the desire for greater community-school linkages should indeed be community-based.

The ideal Community School Program should concern itself with much more than extended use of school facilities - although in certain regions of Newfoundland this should be the first priority. Over the longer term, the objectives of such a program should be to see the community school as a cultural resource - one which witnesses the involvement and co-operation of other agencies within the community or region. It is important to recognize at this juncture that it may not be possible to develop a 'requirements list' or an 'ideal program', in that each community will have its own unique set of needs with respect to time, facilities, and instruction. If properly encouraged the concept of a true community school will develop over a period of time to become the culturally cohesive force that is desired by community and school administrators at all levels.

While there may not be a universally accepted set of requirements with respect to the establishment of effective community- school linkages, there appear to be certain characteristics which are common to those programs which have been deemed successful. These include:

1. recognition of the unique nature of each community's needs and that each program by design will be unique;
2. realization that the impetus for change must come from within a given community;
3. creation of an establishment, i.e. Department of Education, Department of Municipal Affairs, School Boards, Administrators, teachers, which recognizes the value of community education;
4. commitment of sufficient funds to facilitate the establishment - as linkages mature - of community school coordinators;
5. enacting legislation which recognizes and supports the concept of community education;
6. creation of an attitude or mind set amongst all those parties who influence decisions impacting community education that community school linkages are of value and must be fostered.

With respect to the development of enhanced community-school linkages in other provinces and other countries, while we lag far behind some regions and countries, the good news is that we have the potential to learn from the experiences of others and thus build stronger more effective linkages ourselves. In British Columbia and Alberta, as in Newfoundland, the absence of specific legislation together with a lack of inter-agency co-operation have served to limit the potential for enhanced community-school linkages. Too often the bureaucratic maze has left well intentioned community-minded individuals with a myriad of reasons why a particular project cannot work as opposed to leaving them with some hope and insight as to how it might work.

In the United States, arguably the country with the most advanced community school programs, growth in community school usage and linkages has been sporadic - primarily a function of the availability of local, state, or Federal funding. Those states which have committed the most funds to their respective programs appear to have made the most progress. However, as has been witnessed the world over, facilitation of effective community use of schools and community-school linkages is not merely a matter of money for demonstration projects. A number of criteria must be satisfied prior to the establishment of these so called 'demonstration projects'. These include:

1. a demonstrated need or desire, on behalf of a local community, for such an initiative;
2. commitment by all sponsoring agencies to a high level of inter-agency co-operation;
3. establishment of planning directives to facilitate efficient design of both infrastructure and management systems - coupled with a willingness to be flexible - based on the realization that each community school will have to satisfy a unique set of community needs;
4. an understanding by all parties involved that the optimum utilization of such a project/facility will not be an overnight phenomenon - like attitude change, this process will take time.

**Recommendations**

To facilitate more efficient and effective community use of the schools in Newfoundland and Labrador, provision must be made for change in the following areas: legislation, planning, policies, infrastructure, organization.

1. Legislation - While Section 63(b) of the Schools Act states a school building under a particular Board's jurisdiction may be used outside school hours, this activity does not appear, via legislation, to be encouraged. The present/proposed Act should be re-written so as to encourage such activities.

   Also, Section 104 of the Act states that subject to the approval of the appropriate Educational Council, a Board may enter into an agreement regarding joint use, ownership, etc. Again, as the Schools Act is a significant reference point in guiding decision making in this area, the language of this Act should be much stronger - so as to ensure that in future all schools, either new or retrofitted, are designed with community use as a primary consideration.

2. Planning - The present School Planning Manual, 1985, must be updated and should make community use of schools a priority. To accommodate this provision should be made in Sections III - Proposal Development - Parts A & C to accommodate a community needs assessment and an interdepartment/interagency needs assessment.

3. Policies - While there is evidence to suggest that virtually all School Boards have written policies with respect to community access and use, these policies are inconsistent - having different priorities and are not always universal in their application. While it must be recognized that each community has its own unique set of needs, it must also be recognized that community use should be based on some standard. Therefore, consideration should be made for the development of a guideline or policy statement with respect to community use - to be submitted by each School Board in consultation with the Department of Education.

4. Infrastructure - Recent projects, such as those in St. Catherines and Makovik, initiated under the auspices of the Departments of Education and Municipal and Provincial Affairs should be encouraged, in as much as community leaders and indeed communities should be rewarded for their initiative.

   However, where local support has been established, consideration should be made for a demonstration project, the focus of which will be the development of a community school - as opposed to a denominational one.

5. Organization - In communities, where a particular school or group of schools are experiencing heavy after hours use, consideration should be given, at the School Board and Municipal Government level, to the appointment of a community use coordinator.

   This coordinator should report to a regional community development/use authority which would be charged with coordination and development of community use policies and structures.

   This authority should consist of:

   - The Board Superintendent
   - The Assistant Superintendent - Planning
   - The School Planning Supervisor - Department of Education
   - A municipal official - Town Manager/Clerk
   - The Facilities Coordinator - Department of Municipal Affairs

- The School Use Coordinator

Their primary responsibilities would include incorporating broader community use requirements to the designed or retrofitting of schools and the monitoring of the policies and procedures which have been established to coordinate said use.

In order to build the spirit of our respective communities and enhance the quality of life of its residents via the production of right-minded and economically efficient citizens, we must embark upon a program of legislative review, program planning, policy revision, infrastructure and organizational development which considers education to be a life long process and which sees the optimization of our schools as the primary vehicle whereby the aforementioned objective can be accomplished.

### Chapter 8

# MULTI-GRADING

Regina Warren

The multi-grade classroom has emerged in recent years as a special challenge to educators and parents alike. The concept of multi-grade class - also known in the literature as combination class, split level, mixed grade, multi-age, ungraded, non-graded, vertical and family grouping and the most recent definition of multi program classroom used in Quebec has its roots in the one room school of the early days of education. In practice, the concept is usually defined as two or more grade levels of students combined for instructional purposes. The term multi-grade class is the one most frequently discussed in the literature. There is a renewed interest in multi-grading all over the continent. A study by the Carleton Board of Education in a *Review of the Literature Regarding Multi-grade Classes* cites two reasons for this. One is that the topic is of interest to districts where for whatever reason, there are insufficient numbers of students to create classes of appropriate size. Second, the topic is of interest to those whose philosophy is that multi-grade groupings create good learning environments.

Multi-grade classes are often the result of school re-organization and consolidation in many jurisdictions where school districts are faced with decreasing student population, problems of uneven student distribution, limited instructional resources, and inadequate facilities. In Ontario, for example, combined grade classrooms are utilized primarily, to permit the maintenance of class sizes at teachable levels. Based on the premise that the total number of students in a class is generally more important than the students' grade level, so combined grades are designed to meet organizational needs of the school. In this province, school re-organization and consolidation would be the means of eliminating small schools and multi-grade classes. Approximately 10% of the schools in this province are designated multi-grade schools with over twelve thousand pupils being educated in such schools. The trend is to consolidate to eliminate multi-grades. Multi-grade would not be perceived to be a viable choice. There is very little evidence of that in this province though, multi-grade classes are indeed an educational reality in Newfoundland -- a reality that has not always been recognized for its possible effects on students nor on the teacher strategies for delivering instruction in multi-grade classes.

## Class and School Characteristics

Several reports have been written by educators re multi-grading, and the issue of multi-grade groupings vs single-grade grouping has received considerable attention in educational jurisdictions across Canada and North America and elsewhere in the face of declining student enrolment and mounting societal pressures. A review of the Department of Education *Directory* for 1990-91 indicates a very diverse pattern in the way schools are organized for the delivery of curriculum. From this chart, the most prevalent pattern of school grouping, based on a grouping of 35 schools or more, appears to be K-6 schools (154), 7-12 (68); K-12 (84). Of the 532 schools in the province, 69.5% are rural while 30.5% are urban (Educational Statistics, Department of Education, March, 1991). Yet the total population distribution (Census Agglomerations from the same report, March, 1991) is equalized at 50/50. The reality of multi-grading is reflected in the following briefs to the Royal Commission on Education:

> #427: *The declining enrolments in many Newfoundland schools may mean a return to the multi-grade school system.*
>
> #521: *Both schools in this district are small, and declining enrolment is resulting in multi-graded classrooms. However, there are advantages to small schools even with multi-graded classrooms.*

## Rationale

The graded school has become the predominant way educators and parents think about schools. The graded school developed in the 1800's as a response to a need to manage large numbers of students rather than an effort to meet individual student needs (Goodlad and Anderson, 1963). Other reasons such as the advent of graded textbooks, publicly supported education, and the demand for trained teachers have further solidified graded school organization. Ironically, these same factors in the '90s are now necessitating different school organizational patters. The non-graded school pattern has gained prominence in many U.S. states and in some Canadian provinces as well. British Columbia is in its third year of implementation of a non-graded primary program. The Ontario Ministry of Education holds the view that just as there are wide variations in the ages when children learn to speak, or to walk, there are wide variations in when reading, writing, mathematics and other skills are acquired. As a result, the Ministry of Ontario does not use grades, but rather divisions, in outlining the program for children in elementary schools. These divisions are Primary (up to the traditional Grade 3 level), junior (Grades 4, 5, & 6) and intermediate (Grades 7 & 8). Ontario's curriculum content is not grade specific, but is concerned with content areas and instructional strategies appropriate to Divisions rather than grades. (Metropolitan Separate School Board, 1987). Expectations created by the norm of graded schools have presented barriers to education efforts to implement a non-graded program where it is perceived to be an "ideal" organization to better meet students needs. Also, most teachers receive training for single-grade classes usually organized around whole class instruction and/or small ability-grouped instruction, which are generally characterized by low student diversity. In a multi-grade classroom, however, different and more complex skills characterize the method of instruction. Miller (1989) identifies such complex skills in classroom management and discipline, classroom organization, instructional organization and curriculum, instructional delivery and grouping, self-directed learning, and peer tutoring are needed to deliver instruction successfully in a multi-grade class. There is very little evidence to support these kinds of instructional organizational skills in the multi-grade schools in this province. Any effort to bridge this gap has been made by individual boards with very little support from the Department of Education. Too frequently the teacher skill deficit and the need to develop community understanding and support for multi-grading are overlooked when boards are assigning teachers to multi-grade classes or defining policy to implement such classes. Obviously there are concerns here that need to be addressed.

## Effects of Multi-grade Classes

Most of what is known about multi-grade classes comes from studies done in the U.S. and Great Britain. There is limited research on multi-grading in Canada although there is a wide interest across Canada in the topics of multi-grade classes. The only major study done in this province is *The Myriad Mosaic of Multi-Grading* by Linda Doody. Although this study lacks a provincial perspective, it does provide some useful information on the practice(s) of multi-grading from one school districts efforts.

Most studies documented in *Teaching Combined Grade Classes: Real Problems and Promising Practices*, September, 1990, indicate that students in multi-grade classes tend to have significantly more positive attitudes towards themselves, their peers, and school.

In terms of academic achievement, the data clearly support the multi-grade class as a viable, effective organizational alternative to single-grade instruction. Little or no difference in student achievement in the single or multi-grade class was found in the studies conducted in the same report. Other studies from the same report indicate that multi-grade grouping provide remedial benefits for at-risk students.

## Multi-Grading in Newfoundland

It has been projected that enrolment in the province will decline by an additional 30,000 students from current levels by the turn of the century (Towards 2000,1990). The impact of continued and substantial enrolment decline will affect not only small schools but many medium and large schools in a profound way. It is anticipated that one of the consequences of this change will be an increase in multi-grading; whether it is a planned outcome or is forced upon us. Currently about 70% of schools in the province have fewer than 300 students. The reality of this declining enrolment was acknowledged in several briefs to the Royal Commission.

Little research exists as multi-grading in this province other than the major study by Linda Doody, 1990. In that study several questions are posed that are significant to our understanding of the whole educational process.

- *Does a prescriptive, externally imposed curriculum best meet the needs of the individual learner?*
- *Does the specification of time allotted to discrete subjects serve to encourage subject integration and their interdisciplinary approaches?*
- *Does reliance on textbooks or even multiple listings encourage the use of a wide range of learning resources?*
- *Does the use of textbooks encourage teacher creativity and innovation?*
- *Does a graded system encourage the continuous progress of children and support their efforts in reaching their potential?*
- *Does a graded system permit the interaction of children of different ages?*
- *Does a graded system give children and their parents the impression that learning is compartmentalized; that it has a beginning and an end?*

A telephone survey of districts in July, 1991 revealed the extent of multi-grading in the province. It was found that of the 532 schools in the province, 165 of them are multi-graded, multi-grading in terms of no other option available. This represents 12,021 students or 10% of the total population (student) of the province for 1990-91. Unlike the distribution in other jurisdictions throughout Canada and the U.S.A., where multi-grade classrooms are found in both urban and rural areas, the survey found that the majority of multi-grade schools in this province are in rural areas. There are no such schools in Corner Brook, Grand Falls, St. John's, the Avalon Peninsula, or Conception Bay. In addition to this, there are several schools throughout the island which have voluntarily engaged in grade group combinations such as splitting a Grade 2 class and creating a Grade 1 and 2 grouping or a Grade 2 and 3 grouping. Such decisions were made basically because of a small student enrolment in one class. The high incidence of these classrooms in the province suggests that they should receive special attention.

### The 2% Clause

Another factor which has received much discussion during the past year in this province, is the 2% clause. The 2% clause is a factor relating to the teacher allocation formula where by a school board may not lose more than 2% of its teachers in any given school year. The 2% clause has been in existence since 1975. Just one example from the *Directory* of the Department of Education for 1990-91 illustrates the inequities that exist throughout the province, some may term it an injustice, in maintaining this factor. A K-6 school at St. Fintan's registering 98 students with 16.5 teachers is compared with a K-12 school in Conche registering 93 students with 8 teachers. The extra supply of teachers due to the 2% clause has enabled some boards to maintain small school enrolments without multi-grading.

The problems related to multi-grades as they exist in Newfoundland schools are reflected in the combination of grade levels, curriculum organization for more than one grade level, staffing limitations, limited resources, lack of support. At the present time there appears to be considerable differences in approach with respect to how teachers are coping with the concept. The following will illustrate this:

- teachers teaching in multi-grade subject areas across up to three grade levels especially the senior high level;
- teachers in multi-grade schools are expected to be generalists. They are called upon to teach subjects outside their area of speciality;
- there are multi-grade schools which have an extended day for primary students to compensate for the loss of instructional time because of combined grades;
- a teacher in a sole charge school teaching four grade levels is forced to prepare students according to a mandated curriculum or four grades simultaneously. This is a difficult, if not impossible, task to expect without forcing teachers to make compromises in the programs;
- in many cases, teachers are not following prescribed curriculum context as it is too extensive and too difficult to combine;
- in some cases, for example, grade 6 topics are covered in grade 5 and grade 5 topics may be covered when the student is in grade 6;
- there are a few instances in schools where all primary children or all elementary children are combined for certain subjects like language arts, for example, in a non-graded fashion with the curriculum content being adapted for that type of organization.

### Attitudes Towards Multi-Grading

Attitudes towards multi-grading vary. Although the literature reveals many positive effects on social relationships and attitudes for students in multi-grade classes, submissions to the Royal Commission point out a number of concerns regarding small schools and multi-grading. It was particularly noted in Brief #553 that because of geography, there will always be small schools in Newfoundland with resulting need for differing class size and grouping arrangements.

Multi-grading was not presented to the Commission as a negative concept, but recognized the advantages of small schools. In fact, many of the briefs merely acknowledged the reality of multi-grades in this province. Brief #558, however, acknowledged some advantages like *"a close personal relationship between students and teachers, allowing for peer tutoring, and an opportunity for most students to be involved in school extra curricular programs.*

Generally, substantial negativism exists towards multi-grading. Any deviation from the current graded system is usually the option of last choice. Parents, teachers and administrators alike, feel that little direction is available in dealing with multi-grading in the area of modifying the curriculum, individualized instruction, grouping strategies, planning and organizing, just to mention a few. In addition, the teacher training program does not adequately prepare teachers to teach in multi-grade classrooms.

Generally parents tend to view multi-grading negatively. They often wonder whether children learn as much in a multi-grade situation and whether the teacher has time to explain things adequately. This is a common misconception, proven wrong by research, that multi-grade classes offer an inferior education. Yet in instances when the question of school closure was an issue, parents would choose multi-grading in preference to closing their community school.

Teachers, too, sometimes enter into a multi-grade teaching situation having a negative attitude toward the multi-grade approach. They feel that they would not have enough time to complete all that is required of them.

If principals and teachers are not supportive of the multi-grade organization and do not make the necessary adjustments in curriculum adaption and instructional methodologies, the results may be neutral or negative on the student attitude to school and achievement. On the other hand, when principals and teachers subscribed to the idea of multi-grading for philosophical or practical reasons, the effects are likely to be either neutral or positive on achievement and attitude.

Generally, negative attitudes are common. However, these can usually be overcome by explanations of the educational rationale and benefits from multi-grading, by involving parents and teachers in the implementation of multi-grade classes.

## Advantages and Disadvantages of Multi-grading

For the sake of comparison, advantages and disadvantages of multi-grading can be summarized as follows: These opinions were gleaned from the literature and were based on the responses of teachers, parents and administrators, to surveys and questionnaires on several studies conducted.

### Opinions Regarding Multi-Grading
### (gleaned from the literature)

| ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
|---|---|
| - smaller class size | - time factor - insufficient time for teacher preparation and instructor time to effectively cover the curricula and insufficient time to devote to students needs. |
| - learning as effective as or greater than in single grade settings | - teacher preference for single grades |
| - provision of a stimulating educational experience by exposure to students of other ages. | - increased workload for teachers |
| - fostering of realistic attitudes about oneself as a learner, foster the feeling and family and community within the class. | - difficulty in supervising and evaluating teachers in multi-grade situations |
| - emphasis on individualized curriculum | - potential for gaps in student learning |
| - provide more continuity in meeting students needs and interests | - inability to go beyond the basics (eg. not enough time for science experiments) |
| - possibility of small group work | - need for more frequent monitoring and testing of students |
| - increased use of a variety of learning activities | - belief that second language teaching was best conducted in single grade settings |
| - better student attitude | - need for more materials, supplies |
| - fostering of social growth and independence - more independent work habits are developed | - fragmentation, scheduling, and grouping |
| - practice in mutual co-operation and respect | - inability of some students to work independently - demand on teachers time |
| - increased motivation to learn | - the amount of public relations work required to gain parental support. |

- opportunities for older children to be leaders - peer tutoring
- removal of stigma of repeating a grade - no best time
- probability of teachers' continuation with same students - get to know their strengths and weaknesses which may reduce stress for some students.

It must be noted that in schools with combination grades and single grades, some difficulties perceived were: class size too large; children inappropriately added during school year; children felt isolated from others in their grade, their self-esteem suffered. However, in cases where the entire school was multi-grade, these kinds of difficulties were minimized. Problems noted by some, eg. attention to individual needs or grouping were perceived as advantages by others.

It is interesting to note the results of a study done in Saskatchewan by Dr. Jael Gajadharsingh in the achievement of students in grades 3, 4, 5, and 6. The study was specifically designed to learn about the effects of class type (multi-grade and single-grade), school location (rural/urban), and sex (male/female) on the achievement of these students. The data was collected from CTBS test scores in English and Mathematics. Analysis of results showed a significant class type effect. The overall results of the study clearly suggest that the achievement of multi-grade students on the six variables tested was significantly higher than that of single-grade students. With respect to location, the data presented for each grade level revealed that achievement on the CTBS varied according to the locale in which students attended school. On the sex variable the overall results clearly revealed that the achievement of female students in reading and language was significantly higher than that of male students at these grade levels. What was interesting about the grade level results was that students at the Grade 3, 4, and 5 levels obtained near achievement scores which were well above their actual grade levels. The achievement of Grade 6 students, however, did not exceed their actual grade level.

Generally, the achievement of students on the CTBS was considered to be the result of a combination of efforts, but it appeared that class type and school location may have had the greatest impact.

Although there is no comprehensive data available to make a similar comparison within this province, a quick comparison using CTBS results of grades 4 and 6 reveals the following

Grade 8, Fall, 1989

| U_R | MULTI | STUDENTS | SCHOOLS | GE | NP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| R | N | 4063 | 127 | 7.5 | 31 |
| | Y | 488 | 63 | 7.4 | 28 |
| U | N | 4122 | 65 | 7.9 | 43 |
| | Y | 59 | 6 | 7.9 | 43 |

GRADE 4, FALL, 1990

| U_R | MULTI | STUDENTS | SCHOOLS | GE | NP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| R | N | 2832 | 123 | 3.8 | 35 |
| | Y | 951 | 130 | 3.7 | 31 |
| U | N | 3707 | 88 | 4.1 | 47 |
| | Y | 131 | 10 | 3.9 | 39 |

R = Rural; U = Urban, N = Single Multi-Grading, Y = Multi-Grading

The above table reveals that there are no significant differences in achievement between schools which are multi-graded and schools which are not. Any differences in Grade 4 seem to have been lost by Grade 6. Data regarding gender could not be obtained. If one dares to make an assumption, it will probably be that children in multi-grade classes, regardless of their grade level, would do just as well as, or even better in cognitive development than students in single-grade classes. What Gajadharsingh found in his research may indeed prove true for Newfoundland in that students in multi-grade classrooms develop, in addition to personality traits, better positive self-concepts, greater independence, more effective work habits and more positive attitudes to school. They also have an increased sense of security and belonging.

### The Teacher in a Multi-Grade Classroom - The Issues

Teaching in a multi-grade class is a demanding task requiring a special type of individual. It requires training, communication with parents and community members, resources and resourcing, and support and supporting that facilitate multi-grade instruction.

A multi-graded organization requires more planning by teachers for individualization of instruction. Teachers endure the frustration of teaching several grade combinations with other responsibilities their job entails. Teachers need to learn strategies effective in dealing with double curricula and varying child development levels.

Teachers need help in coping with the considerable demands on them. Some of the ways in which this can be done are as follows:

1. The shared wisdom of grade combination teachers by noting teaching strategies their multi-grade peers have found effective and implementing them.
2. The development of policy and resources that aid multi-grade teaching.
3. Staff developers to find techniques to incorporate in workshops for multi-grade teachers as well as mechanisms for organizing support groups and the most effective instructional and management practices.
4. Training in strategies that will allow multi-grade teachers to help all students achieve academic success.

Assistance with instruction and planning time were common themes throughout the literature which centred on teacher issues.

Teachers tend to feel that there should be a limit placed on the number of years a teacher may be assigned to a grade combination class. Teachers wanted greater input into class size, student placement and scheduling. Several briefs to the Royal Commission expressed concerns in these areas as well. For example:

Brief #86 referred to *"class size, and class arrangement as being very important in having successful educational programs in our schools."*

Brief #177: "Space and class size needs to be addressed" and Brief 209 spoke of "need for new and innovative teaching methods."

In addition, Brief #761 dealt in part with such issues as *"the problems of teaching in a small school in an isolated community. Small number of students, multi-grades and tack of training in teaching in am multi-graded school as well as the difficulty for teachers adjusting to the multi-grade situation."*

**The Student in the Multi-Grade Classroom - The Issues**

The advantages for students in multi-grade classes has already been enumerated. Students should not suffer from lack of attention to individual needs in multi-grade classes, but should benefit socially and academically from increased co-operation and exposure to new concepts. In school students can learn to work with others in varying age and developmental perspectives and grow from that experience. In a multi-grade classroom, students tend to take a more active role in the educational process.

Older children act as a role model for younger children while younger children are exposed to models of language and behaviour of older students and they gain enrichment. More independent work habits are developed. Older students learn a great deal about responsibility and leadership which can enhance self-esteem.

Class size has been identified as a definite issue in multi-grade classes. There was no agreement in the literature on an ideal class size other than combination classes should be kept small. There were suggestions that classes between 15-20 students would be an acceptable class size. Which grades to combine always appeared to be as a student issue from an administrative perspective.

**The Curriculum in the Multi-Grade Classroom - The Issues**

Team teaching was viewed as helping the workload of teachers. Instead of dictating curriculum by grade level, curriculum should be looked at more as a concept development.

**Initiatives re Multi-Grading Already Undertaken in the Province of Newfoundland**

The information which follows was collected during research completed for the report entitled, *The Myriad Mosaic of Multi-Grading* by Linda Doody.

Department of Education:

References to multi-grading are contained in the following documents. (See attached material)

Children's Learning: A primary Curriculum Handbook

Elementary Science Curriculum Guide

Learning French as a Second Language

The Program of Studies (1990)

Additionally, the Advisory Panel Small Schools Project produced a report in 1987 entitled *Small Schools Project: Final Report*.

School Districts:

**Avalon Consolidated**

Produced a report in 1987 entitled "Report of the Committee on Multi-Grade Classes to

Instructional Council, Avalon Consolidated School Board." (Pennell et al., 1987).

**Avalon North**

Developed curriculum guidelines/themes for multi-grade instruction particularly in the Language Arts in 1989 entitled "Themes for Grade VII, VIII, and IX". (Anderson and Tucker, 1989).

**Bay of Islands**

St. George's, Burgeo, Ramea set up a demonstration multi-grade classroom. Has produced a paper regarding multi-grading entitled "Presentation to the Curriculum Committee on Multi-Grade Classrooms". (Powers 1989).

**Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia Integrated School District**

Produced the Core Program designed to eliminate duplication of content at Primary Levels in 1981. (Carter and Pardy, 1981) Initiated current multi-grade research project: The Myriad Mosaic of Multi-Grading (Doody, 1991). Planning in-service for all multi-grade teachers in March, 1991.

**Deer Lake - St. Barbe South**

Conducted a class size survey in which a large number of respondents communicated on multi-grading. Held an in-service in the Fall of 1989 with multi-grade teachers. Will be sponsoring the Small Schools Conference in May of 1991. (Parsons, 1989).

**Exploits - White Bay**

Some curriculum planning. Exploring approaches for effective instruction. (Noonan, 1989).

**Labrador East**

Conducted in-service sessions regarding multi-grading in Fall, 1989. Produced papers entitled "Teaching Science in a Multi-Grade Classroom" (Simms, n.d.), and "Some Thoughts on Multi-Grade Teaching." (Waye n.d.). Conducted a Multi-Grade Teacher Questionnaire in 1988.

**Notre Dame**

Curriculum planning in the Language Arts at the Elementary Level (Boyd 1989).

**Pentecostal Assemblies**

Graduate Student is planning to do research on achievement in single vs multi-grade classrooms.

**Placentia - St. Mary's**

Produced a report in 1985 entitled "Report on Multi-Grade Schools in the Placentia - St. Mary's Roman Catholic School Board." (Fagan, 1989).

**Port au Port**

Multi-Grade Project classroom, curriculum planning, etc... (Wiseman, 1989).

**Strait of Belle Isle**

Active in having a Co-ordinator responsible for small schools/multi-grading, Doody, 1991. In addition, the Roman Catholic School Board for Labrador has since 1989 implemented a multi-age, non-graded primary unit at J. R. Smallwood Collegiate. Multi-grading has also been introduced into the French Immersion classes in some school boards.

### Successful Teacher Strategies for Multi-grade Classes

The study of Carleton Board of Education (Nepean, Canada), April 1990, outlines several successful teaching strategies for instruction in multi-grade classes. It must be noted, however, that these strategies can be generally applied to all teaching instruction whether in graded or multi-graded classes as they characterize good teaching practices in general.

Successful strategies for dealing with multi-grade classes are thought to include:

1. reducing class size
2. closely supervising curriculum mandates
3. combining the responsibilities of 2 or more teachers
4. establishing a student selection process
5. differentiating assignments and expectations
6. differentiating the use of teacher attention
7. differentiation instructing in reading and mathematics
8. heightening awareness of students abilities
9. using active learning centres
10. using study units and themes rather than isolated pieces of instruction
11. using field trips and field activities
12. stressing a classroom atmosphere of co-operation responsibility and self-motivation
13. emphasizing communication skills
14. rewarding independent work
15. instructing, then assigning independent activities
16. giving clear direction at outset of activities
17. balancing whole groups and small group activities
18. using a variety of teaching approaches
19. having older students help and supervise younger students
20. using cross-age tutoring.

In a joint study by VEA and OERI, Washington, 1990, respondents were asked to rank the frequency of their use of identified instructional strategies.

The methods reported to be most effective were also the same methods that were used most frequently. Integrating the curricular ranked first. The second most frequently used instructional method was peer tutoring followed by co-operative learning and team teaching.

### What is needed

Many factors need to be considered to ensure success of multi-grade class organization. Support the need for specialized preparation for rural teachers to include training for teaching multi-grade classes, a strong background in reading, better teaching in handling classroom discipline with varying age groups. Teachers need a more general approach to teaching than what our training program usually provides.

Future enrolment trends show a steady decline. Many boards are presently in the process of consolidating schools and re-organizing student populations. Two situations are slowly emerging. In areas where no further consolidation is possible, multi-grade classes already in existence will continue to be multi-grade while in other areas, multi-grade classes will be set up out of administrative necessity where parents choose the alternative to ensure the long term viability of their community schools. There is also an emerging trend throughout districts where multi-grade classes are being formed voluntarily based on the philosophical belief that greater individual difference among students promote a richer learning environment that quite possibly stimulate positive student attitudes by bringing together children with both common and different interests, talents and backgrounds. So, the question remains firstly, what approach to take with the multi-grade schools where no other option is available, but to accept the demographic limitations of their habitation and secondly, what approach to take with schools which voluntarily set up multi-grade combinations for whatever reason, administrativelyor pedagogically. In bother instances some common approaches prevail.

In cases where our curriculum is designed for a single grade format, et. core french courses, such problems could be overcome by modification to the curriculum in a multi-grade setting. The opinion is that a pre-determined curriculum is not served well by multi-grade classes. Programs are needed to adapt curriculum to a multi-grade setting.

More research on teaching and learning in multi-grade classrooms

The use of teacher assistants either 1/2 of full time.

In order for multi-grading to work and for it to be a positive experience for all, administration, teachers and parents need to have a strong belief in the philosophy. Planning and commitment are essential factors.

Gajadharsingh's (1981) study showed Saskatchewan teachers needed in-service in four major areas; (1) scheduling of classes, (2) adapting curriculum, (3) preparing self-directed materials for independent work and (4) classroom management.

We need a combined-content curriculum particularly when attempts are made to combine grades.

There must be a move to counteract the negative publicity. Funding must be directed to research on teaching and learning in multi-grade classrooms. Research is needed in the following areas as well, for example, (1) current demography of multi-grade classrooms in the province, (2) the typology of grades and grade combinations in multi-grade classrooms, (3) instances of multi-grade classrooms in different types of schools, (4) the geographical distribution of multi-grade classrooms and (5) distribution of students enrolled in the various types of multi-grade classrooms.

## Conclusion

There is very little empirical evidence to support many of the 'opinions' or 'perceptions' of the practice of multi-grading. Further research is needed to determine whether the perceived disadvantages indeed do have an influence on student achievement. The advantage, however, can be better supported in research.

As previously stated, many factors need to be put in place to ensure the success of a multi-grade class organization. True understanding and appreciation of the benefits, only grows out of being actually involved in the process of implementing such a programme.

We need to look closely at how schools are organized in order to ensure maximum student learning and development. Where choices are to be made, the grade organization which results in the most effective delivery of programs to the student is the preferable one. We are not suggesting that there be a multi-grade class for every school, but that a combined class be considered as an option as a more suitable type of organization for some students. In cases where another option is possible, the emphasis should be placed on the creating the best and most effective teaching learning environment as possible.

## Recommendations

1. That the Newfoundland Government reorganize all education for primary children into one primary unit. The Primary Unit will serve all children aged 5-8 years of age.
2. That the infrastructure be put in place to accommodate kindergarten children for a full day of schooling.
3. That the Newfoundland Government conduct a multi-media campaign aimed at parents with pre-schoolers throughout the province.
4. That the Newfoundland Government hold annual workshops for parents of pre-schoolers throughout the province. The aim of these workshops will be to promote school readiness

through an at-home program of information and appropriate activities for preparing children for school.

5. That educational policy be initiated and resources developed at the Department of Education school district and school level to support and assist teachers in multi-grade class settings.
6. That the Department of Education, NTA and school districts co-operatively provide a forum for multi-grade teachers to share their most effective teaching strategies and practices in multi-grade classes with their peers and implement them.
7. That workshops for multi-grade teachers include techniques for the most effective instructional and management practices and mechanisms for organizing support groups.
8. That multi-grade teachers be trained in the strategies that will allow them to help all students achieve academic success.
9. That MUN include in its teacher training program types of training that facilitate multi-grade instruction.
10. That a resource guide be developed to assist multi-grade teachers in improving the quality of instruction.
11. That any effort to understand and improve the process of education in the multi-grade classroom should take into consideration the views of teachers in such classrooms.
12. That the teacher training program be changed to include the basic degree be a general approach with specialization devoted to graduate programming.
13. That the provincial Department of Education play a leadership role in devising a combined curriculum content along with instruction strategies geared to multi-grade classes.
14. That the whole area of multi-grading be acknowledged and stops taken to improve the quality of education in these classrooms.
15. That school boards, NTA, the Department of Education and related agencies evaluate their present approaches to multi-grading with the aim of updating and clarifying their policies.
16. That each multi-grade school be assigned teacher aides or teacher assistants to assist multi-grade teachers with a variety of teaching approaches and teaching materials thus reducing the teaching workload for teachers in multi-grade classes.
17. That attention and funds be directed both to in-service training programs and to teaching materials applicable to multi-grade classes.
18. That student teachers be placed in multi-grade classrooms as part of their field experience.
19. That funding be directed to research on teaching and learning in the multi-grade classroom.
20. That the Department of Education in co-operation with school boards and school administrators develop a philosophy to support and guide instruction in multi-grade classes. That attention be given to selection of teachers for multi-grade classes and on reduced teaching workload for them.
21. That the Department of Education place high priority on the development of differentiated curricula and learning resources for multi-grade classrooms.
22. That research on teaching and learning in the multi-grade classroom be undertaken in the Newfoundland context.

Chapter 9

# DISTANCE EDUCATION

Garfield Fizzard

## I. INTRODUCTION

Newfoundland and Labrador has had a considerable number of small schools, and while many people who have received their formal education in such institutions have fond memories of their school days, it is recognized by virtually all that small schools have many limitations in the quality of education that they can provide.

In the last four decades, a number of programmes have been implemented to help reduce these limitations. For example, there has been a system of bursaries to enable children in small schools to move to larger centers for their education. There have also been itinerant teachers and the sharing of services among neighbouring small schools.

For many communities in the 1960s, the desire to give their children improved educational opportunities was the primary motivation behind the abandonment of small communities.

For some time there has been a extensive programme of building central schools and bussing children sometimes from as far away as 25 miles. The process of centralization of educational facilities continues as school boards attempt to provide quality education with limited funds.

Not insignificantly, parents are becoming increasingly dissatisfied with the solution adopted by professional educators. It is common to witness angry parents of small communities protesting the closing of their school, for them the last vestige of community-based public institutions.

What has been the response of professional educators? Normally it is that these parents are being unreasonable. It is said they cannot have it both ways. They want their children to get quality education and they want them to attend a small school close to home. And it is only common sense, it is claimed, that it is impossible to offer quality education in small schools. To provide quality (and affordable) education, schooling must be centralized to the maximum.

This has been conventional wisdom in our province for many years. It is not the intention of this paper to address the controversial question of whether or not the denominational education imposes more small schools than necessary. However, it is appropriate to challenge the notion that the only way to provide quality education is to physically transport students long distances to sit next to each other in the same classroom.

As one has written, "Do we have to continue to worship at the altar of the Goddess of Proximity?"

In going back to first principles in this question, we would not be breaking entirely new grounds. We are not alone in having small schools in isolated areas, and it is instructive to see how some others have attempted to solve similar problems.

Before proceeding, and lest the impression is given that "out there" someone else has found the perfect solution and that in this province we have continued to hold on to outmoded thinking, in fact some "cutting-edge" innovations have been taking place in this province, and in some respects we are holding our own among the innovators. Nevertheless, it should be of assistance to examine the experiences of others.

Some of the most interesting developments in trying to deliver quality education to remote regions are in the area of "distant education."

## II. HISTORICAL AND INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

The term "distance education" is a relatively new term now used almost exclusively to identify a process that is quite old. Previously the term "correspondence courses" was the most common nomenclature. The growing acceptance of the term "distance education" is evident from the fact that in 1982 the International Council for Correspondence Education (ICCE) changed its name to the International Council for Distance Education (ICDE).[1]

The first evidence of correspondence education is found in 1833 in an advertisement in English in the Lunds Weckoblad in Sweden offering " 'Ladies and Gentlemen'" an opportunity to study 'composition through the medium of the Post'."[2]

As time progressed there was a growth in correspondence education. Many of the programmes were simple, small-scale and individually originated, but they did satisfy the basic requirement of interactive correspondence in the teaching of an organized body of knowledge. Correspondence education expanded in this century and since Word War I it has been introduced into country after country.[3]

Much of the expansion has been it at the post secondary level and has been part of the extension activities of existing universities. However, the 1970s and 1980s saw universities established to deliver courses exclusively in a distance education mode. Examples of such universities can be found in Pakistan, Canada, Israel, West Germany, Iran, Great Britain, Sri Lanka. Costa Rica, Venezuela, and Spain, and others.[4]

Some developments have focused on education within the school systems. This type of distance education has been called "supervised correspondence study" (now "supervised distance education).

> "The term denotes the study of correspondence courses under the guidance of a teacher who need not - and cannot -be academically competent in all the subjects learnt but who advises and supports his students and is a link between the supporting organization and the learners."[5]

In reviewing distance education literature, it is well to keep in mind the distinction between (i) offering distance education courses within the regular school system, and (ii) offering distance education courses with the content similar to that of conventional courses in the school system.

Many distance education programmes have delivered secondary school level courses, but only some of them have been offered through school systems. While no firm statistics have been found on the matter, it is clear that most of these secondary school level courses have been delivered to adults in their homes. Most of the students in these programmes have been adults who, for one reason or another, did not complete their secondary education in the conventional school system and have not been able to return to that system. Instead, they have opted for the independent study of distance education courses in their homes.

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[1] Börje Holmberg, Growth and Structure of Distance Education (London: Croom Helm, 1986), 1.

[2] J.A. Bååth, Postal Two-way Communication in a Correspondence Education (Lund: Gleerup, 1980), 13.

[3] Börje Holmberg, Growth and Structure of Distance Education (London: Croom Helm, 1986), 10.

[4] Börje Holmberg, Growth and Structure of Distance Education (London: Croom Helm, 1986), 31.

[5] Börje Holmberg, Growth and Structure of Distance Education (London: Croom Helm, 1986), 11.

This distinction between school-based and home-based distance education courses is not always clear in the literature, and the ambiguity makes research into distance education difficult if one is attempting, as has been done in the preparation of this paper, to discover the experiences of public school systems in distance education.

Nevertheless, it is possible to find examples of extensive application of the distance education model of course delivery in numerous educational systems around the world. Two countries that have been especially active in this respect have been Australia and the United States. The pioneer country is considered by most to have been Australia, which first included a distance education programme in their public school system early in this century.

> Australia can claim to be the first country to have shown in a systematic way, on a large scale, that it is possible to provide by correspondence a complete primary and secondary education for children who have never been to school."[6]

Correspondence courses started in the United States in 1923 when high school courses were offered in Michigan in a variety of academic courses.[7]

The United States continues to be a leader in distance education in public schools. Clark writes in 1989:

> "Distance education is practised widely in the United States. While we are not leading practitioners of distance education at the adult level, a case can be made that this country is a leader at the school level.
>
> Thirty-two state education departments reported funding distance education projects last year; there were over seventy telecommunication projects in New York State alone."[8]

While it is useful to draw a distinction between children and adults as the learners in any distant education programme, some systems have combined both within their mandate. An example is New Zealand, where the government's Distance Education School states that its mandate includes a wide clientele:

(1) pre-school children (ages 3 through 5) who are unable to regularly attend an officially recognized kindergarten, plan centre, or pre-school class of a primary school;

(2) handicapped children (both intellectually and physically) who are provided with special courses;

(3) specially gifted children who require extension programs;

(4) adults of all ages who wish to complete or continue their education, including adult illerates or semi-illerates who, for one reason or another, have never learned to read or write satisfactorily;

(5) new settlers, i.e., immigrants with non-English language backgrounds;

(6) teachers (a) who have not completed their basic training; (b) who are fully qualified but have been out of active teaching for more than two years and are required to undergo revision courses; and (c) who are fully qualified and in the teaching service, who wish to advance and therefore take courses to improve their background qualifications and extend their professional knowledge; and

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[6] S. A. Rayner, Correspondence Education in Australia and New Zealand (Melbourne: Melbourne University Press, 1949), 12.

[7] Report of Supervised Correspondence Study (Scranton, P.A.: Teachers College, Columbia, 1934).

[8] Chris Clark, "Distance Education in United States Schools." The Computing Teacher. Mar. 1989, 7, 8-9.

(7) the pupils of small schools needing instruction in subjects in which the local teacher lacks the necessary knowledge.[9]

## III. THE CANADIAN SCENE

Distance education has had a presence in Canada for many years. As elsewhere, the courses were developed first as "correspondence courses" and in most instances were designed for adults to allow them to upgrade their education by taking high school courses through independent study at home. Two provinces that have been active in this application of distance education have been British Columbia and Ontario.

In addition to providing upgrading opportunities, these correspondence/distance courses have been used by students who could not attend regular schools, such as children of lighthouse keepers and of Canadian diplomats stationed abroad.

A summary of distance education in Canada has been provided by Cooper and Young. [10] This report can add nothing of value to that account, except to note that Newfoundland and Labrador is not alone in turning more and more to the application of technology to deliver education to small schools.

## IV. DISTANCE EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

The history of distance education in Newfoundland and Labrador is sparse and unimpressive. Under the Commission of Government, correspondence courses developed in Nova Scotia were made available to students in Newfoundland and Labrador who were not attending regular schools. It is not clear how many students availed themselves of these courses.

In 1956 a plan to initiate the offering of courses through correspondence to small high schools was announced. Some activity resulted from this initiative: some correspondence courses were offered in Grades 9, but nothing was done for Grades 10 and 11, and by 1964 the programme had been discontinued.

To this author's knowledge, no analysis of that programme has been done, nor has its abandonment been explained. It may be noted that this was the period of the officially sanctioned (some would say encouraged, if not forced) community resettlement programme. There were in place, then, two opposing processes with respect to education, one attempting to improve educational opportunities in small communities through correspondence education, and another based in part on the philosophy that the best way to provide educational opportunities was to consolidate schools. Given the political context of these choices, it is not surprising that the embryonic distance education programme did not stand much of a chance.

No much was heard of distance education in this province for many years. As the educational planners attempted to improve the opportunities for the children of this province, the single-minded approach was to attempt to adopt as closely as possible the model of school systems in urban North America, and to ignore the extensive experiences with respect to distance education in other regions of the world, including some rural areas of the United States.

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[9] J.E. McVeagh, "The New Zealand Correspondence School: A Pragmatic System for the Basic Schooling of Isolated Children," in J.P. Sher, ed. Rural Education in Urbanized Nations: Issues and Innovations (Boulder, Col.: Westview Press, 1981).

[10] Leon Cooper and Doug Young. Distance Education: The Newfoundland and Labrador Project. A Background Report to the Royal Commission on Education (St. John's: Department of Education, 1991).

In 1981 this author gave two papers on distance education, one to a conference in Corner Brook, attended by senior officials of the Department of Education and one to the Co-ordinators' Special Interest Council of the Newfoundland Teachers Association in St. John's. Nothing came of these presentations.

Distance Education surfaced again in 1987 with the release of the report on small schools by Dr. Frank Riggs, who recommended some attention be given to the offering of courses through distance education.[11] That year a beginning was made by undertaking a pilot project in which Advanced Mathematics 1201 was offered as a distance education course. Subsequently two other Mathematics courses have been developed and one in Physics is in preparation.

An important element in the pilot project was experimentation with a sophisticated telecommunication system. The courses have been delivered through audioteleconferencing, a telewriter system (computer, modem, television monitor and graphics pad) and a fax machine.

From a review of the various reports and through discussions with the principal participants, this author is of the opinion that the experience has proven the viability of offering full credit courses through a programme of distance education in this province.

An account of the processes involved in these development has been provided in "Distance Education: The Newfoundland and Labrador Project".[12] The Department of Education is continuing to offer the courses and it has established an administrative unit called "Distance Education/Learning Resources". To this author's knowledge, however, no formal policy decision has been made to establish an on-going, comprehensive programme of distance education programme in our schools.

The question, then, is: Should the Department of Education establish an ongoing distance education programme?

## Rationale for a Distance Education Programme

A distance education programme, if it was developed, could have a large number of components, each addressing a set of needs. Many of these needs are discussed individually in the next section. However, it is in order here to make some general observations with respect to such a programme.

A full distance education programme can meet a number of needs of learners throughout the province in urban areas as well as in rural parts of the province. It is as well to recognize, however, that the driving force for such a programme to be accepted as policy most likely will be to provide improved educational opportunities to small isolated schools of the province.

It is not difficult to make a case for better education in our small schools. For example, the Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment put considerable emphasis on the need to upgrade education in rural areas:

> There are ... glaring differences in educational attainment between urban and rural areas.... Rural Newfoundlanders are less educated than their urban counterparts, and it appears that the gap in widening. There is also a strong relationship between participation in post-secondary education and community size.[13]

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[11] Frank Riggs, Final Report: Small Schools Project (St. John's: Department of Education, 1987).

[12] Leon Cooper and Doug Young. Distance Education: The Newfoundland and Labrador Project. A Background Report to the Royal Commission on Education (St. John's: Department of Education, 1991).

[13] Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment. Education for Self-Reliance: A Report on Education and Training in Newfoundland (St. John's: Author, 1986), p. 52.

> One half of all young people between the ages of 15 and 24 who are living in rural areas and have less than high school graduation are unemployed. The school cannot be expected to compensate completely for illiteracy in the home, but children from such backgrounds can be given a better chance through early childhood education programmes that begin in the pre-school years.[14]

In current popular parlance, there is need for a "level playing field" for students in the province, regardless of the size of their community and school.

While a distance education programme is no panacea for all the difficulties facing our small schools, as will be demonstrated below, it can be a very significant factor in reducing the discrepancies between the small and large schools. Indeed, without some provision of distance education, it is difficult to see how the inadequacies of education in small schools can ever be significantly reduced.

The rationale for a distance education programme, however, goes beyond the offering of improved educational opportunities in the rural areas in this province. The educational opportunities throughout this province must be considered within the Canadian context, for our students have to function within the nation as a whole. The educational programme of the province cannot be inferior to the rest of Canada if our students are to have a "level playing field" with their counterparts across the country.

A distance education programme may be a strong contributing element in helping the province's students compete educationally with other Canadian students. For example, an essential aspect of modern distance education programmes is the use of high technology, including computers and telecommunication. In the pilot project, the high school students demonstrated that they could become familiar and comfortable with these technologies. As a result, they will be likely to able to hold their own in the use of such technologies in future educational and/or occupational opportunities.

In brief, then, a well-articulated, well-developed, and well-managed distance education programme can be a significant factor in improving the educational opportunities of students throughout the province.

**Recommendation 1: The Department of Education should establish an ongoing Distance Education Programme.**

## V. DESIGNING A DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAMME

As with any programme, to be a success, it is essential that the Distance Education Programme be guided by a clear, well developed policy which would include references to a number of elements including purpose, clientele, administrative structure, processes and evaluation.

**Recommendation 2: That a policy to guide the establishment, development, maintenance, and monitoring of a distance education programme be developed.**

We shall now examine the critical questions to be faced in designing a programme of distance education.

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[14] Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment. Education for Self-Reliance: A Report on Education and Training in Newfoundland (St. John's: Author, 1986), p. 115.

## Major Components of the Programme

In the foregoing discussion, virtually all references have been to the offering of full credit courses at a distance, and it has been concluded that is sufficient to justify the establishment of a distance education programme. However, to carry out that programme, a telecommunication system would have to be established, and there are several potential uses of such a system in addition to the provision of full credit courses. Consideration should be given, then, to including more in the programme can the provision of full credit courses.

The following are four potential components of a distance education programme:

(a) provision of full credit courses.

(b) support for other aspects of school programmes.

(c) professional development of teachers.

(d) use by community groups.

### Provision of Full Credit Courses

Most of the discussion above has had to do with this aspect of distance education. It is often seen as synonymous with distance eduction. It is here that the Department of Education has had almost all its experience in distance education.

**Need.** As mentioned above, several reports dealing with education, especially in the small schools of the province, have made the case for improving the educational experiences in small schools. In his report on small schools, Dr. Frank Riggs argued that there was a need to deliver courses through a distance education programme:

> We feel [the technological] mode of delivery must be pursued. There is clearly a limit to the number of teachers who can be beneficially placed in any school. Classes in small high schools are already very small. The delivery of courses by correspondence, computers, videotapes or a combination of these appears to be a most desirable way of ensuring that a greater variety of subjects are available to those who attend the small high schools. We recommend:
>
> Recommendation 3.6: That greater use of technology be made in program delivery in small schools, especially small high schools.
>
> Our position on this issue is that it is necessary for the Department of Education to begin extensive development in distance education and that a structure should be established to assist in this development and to administer the activities with it after the development has taken place.
>
> Recommendation 3.7
>
> That a Distance Education School be established and a principal and teachers be employed to assume responsibility for the development and administration of distance education courses.[15]

### Support for Other Aspects of School Programmes

A telecommunication system in a school would permit many more experiences for students than the taking of full credit courses. In fact, if such a system is in place, it is envisaged that whereas only some students would be using the system to take full credit courses, virtually all students would be using it from time to time for other purposes.

It is helpful to consider these additional uses of the telecommunication system as an extension of the "learning resources" services of the school system. At present, library books, films, videos and the like are made available to teachers and students through various levels of the school system, depending largely on the cost of the individual items. The Department of Education provides some types of resources; several school boards have resource centers; and increasingly school libraries/resource centers are being established.

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[15] Frank Riggs, Final Report: Small Schools Project (St. John's: Department of Education, 1987), 28.

Two recent innovations open the possibility of many more resources for all schools, regardless of size, location, subjects or grade level. They are computers and telecommunications. Together or separately, they provide new ways to improve educational experiences to school throughout the province. The following are only a few of the many possibilities:

(a) Students in literature courses can engage in audio teleconferences with authors. This could be used to supplement the visiting authors programme in place at present, and make more authors available to more students at substantially less cost than it would take to expand the present programme to the same degree.

(b) Other human resources who could be accessed in this way are political and religious figures and experts in a variety of fields, such as science and technology. Learning experiences of this kind have proven to be very valuable, not only for the information obtained, but by providing considerable motivation for the students as they prepare for their teleconference sessions.

(c) Students in different schools can communicate with each others through an audio teleconferencing system. This has already happened in some interesting ways. For example, with the equipment installed for the pilot project, two schools in different parts of the province became electronically "twinned" and exchanged information about their school and their community. In another instance, a French immersion class in Newfoundland made several contacts with English immersion students in New Brunswick, speaking alternatively in French and in English. With a telecommunication system in place, these kinds of locally initiated uses could be expected to increase.

(d) An electronic bulletin board could be used to establish a form of "speakers bureau" where people with expertise on specified topics can be identified. Another bulletin board could be used by students to exchange information about projects, such as science fairs they have held.

(e) Computer data bases can be accessed on-line for a variety of educational purposes. There are many such bases available now and the numbers are growing. For example, a class in Statistics 3104 could access certain Stats Canada data bases for research on demographics in this province. Several departments of the federal government have data bases that can be accessed by schools, and in time provincially-based data bases will become available.

(f) Not all data bases need be accessed on line. Some are available on disks which can be either sent through the mail, or the data can be transmitted electronically and used locally. At present the CD-ROM technology is being used to create data bases that can be used by computers in ways that have many more pedagogical uses than can be provided in other media. For example, encyclopedias and other data bases are appearing on CD-ROM.

(g) Specialists physically remote from a given school, could, in conjunction with the on-site teachers, provide diagnostic and remedial experiences for children having difficulties, such as in reading.

(h) Career information and guidance could be provided at a distance.

(i) It is technically possible to use the telecommunication system to eliminate some of the social limitations of attending a small rural school. For example, certain games lend themselves well to telecommunications. Province - wide chess clubs including students from remote areas are an example.

**Need.** The question concerning the need for learning resources in general has been settled for some time. It is now agreed by all that to have any quality in education, students and teachers need more than the traditional blackboard and textbook.

The question of need here, then, is not whether the resources in general are needed; rather, the question is: Should provision be made now for access to resources through computer technology and telecommunications?

In the view of this author, as a province we have no choice but to plan for this development. It has been stated often that we cannot afford to provide our students with an education that is inferior to that of other Canadians; the social and personal consequences of inferior are too severe to even entertain that possibility as policy. In the last decade or so, there have been some commendable developments in providing the province's schools with a wide range of learning resources, along with the preservice and inservice training of teachers to adjust their teaching strategies to use these resources. The need to keep abreast other Canadian schools in providing for the new resources is clear.

A feature of the new resources of computer and telecommunications is that, for the first time, the distinctions between the small rural schools and the larger urban schools can reasonably be reduced if not eliminated. A s long as the resources were "things", like books and films, it was reasonable to assume that large schools could be expected to have more of them than small schools. Now, with much of the information in electronic form and with the cost of transmission of that information through telecommunication being relatively independent of distance, students in the smallest, most remote school in the province can have access to the same information as students in the largest, most urban school in the province.

In summary, then, if we as a province are committed to the provision of quality education to all students, the need for this component of a distance education programme is clear.

Professional Development of Teachers

There are several ways that the presence of a telecommunication system can used by educators (teachers, administrators, coordinators, etc.) The following are some examples:

(a) Various forms of in-service education can be accomplished through teleconferencing. A system that would allow such a teleconference to originate from any school in the province would make it feasible to conduct in-service sessions without a great deal of organizational lead time. The flexibility of the system would also allow local and regional in-service sessions.

(b) Many teachers, especially those in small schools, have the need to consult with specialists on matters affecting their students. Many of these teachers do not have easy access to specialists; telecommunications could make it possible to provide at least some of that assistance more effectively and efficiently.

(c) Teachers in larger centers often make use of personal contacts with colleagues to keep abreast of developments in their field. That informal network is not as easily available to teachers in remote areas; an electronic bulletin board for teachers could be used to allow teachers to keep in contact with colleagues throughout the province.

**Need.** It is self evident and universally accepted that the professional development of teachers, through preservice and inservice training, is of critical importance to any educational system. How important could a telecommunication system be to the professional development of educators? From present experiences and future needs, it would appear to be of considerable importance.

Many teachers in this province have already taken credit courses from Memorial University through a teleconference system. Teachers from areas remote from St. John's have taken courses they would otherwise not be able to take at all or would get only at considerably higher cost and inconvenience. As well, St. John's teachers have used the system to take courses when only small groups of teachers need the courses at the same time.

The present telecommunication system has also been used in many instances for inservice education. For example, consultants at the Department of Education on occasion have teleconference sessions with Board coordinators on new programmes. This approach saves considerable time, travel cost and time from other duties.

A limitation of the present telecommunication system is that the "end" equipment is not available in each school. If each school had such equipment, much more preservice and inservice professional development would be possible.

Uses by Community Groups

A telecommunication system has many uses beyond formal education. The following are a few examples:

(a) Groups of fishermen could use it to learn of new regulations and programmes.

(b) Development organizations could hold teleconference sessions to plan strategies to take advantage of new programmes.

(c) Electronic newsletters could be developed by community organizations to exchange information and experiences.

(d) Computer data bases could provide individuals in the community with information concerning job opportunities and qualifications needed.

**Need.** The experiences of the Telemedicine Unit at Memorial University and TETRA (Telemedicine and Educational Technology and Resources Agency) have shown that community groups can find many valuable uses for a teleconference system. Various institutions, government extension workers and others have many occasions when they could use such a system to reach groups of people without having to take the time and incur the expenses of travelling and arranging for in-person meetings. That is not to say the telecommunication system would or should replace all such face-to-face meetings. However, it could reduce the need for many of them. There is the question as to whether the Distance Education Programme should recognize this application of "its" telecommunication system. In the view of this author, it is both appropriate and necessary for the school system to become involved in providing informational services to the community at large. As a matter of principle, it can be argued that the school system needs to see its mandate as expanding beyond the K-12 clientele. One ramification of such a principle would be making the telecommunication system in the school available to the community at large.

There is also a practical aspect to the matter. Many governmental and quasi-governmental groups have needs for such access to small communities and, barring some collaborative arrangement, may institute their own system. It seems inadvisable for a small and relatively poor province like Newfoundland and Labrador to attempt to duplicate the systems in small communities. The school is the logical institution in each community to provide this access to the outside world. The school, then, will be fulfilling a role as an educational institution for the whole community and would become the community resource center.

It should be recognized here that Newfoundland and Labrador already has an extensive telecommunication system in place in many small communities through the programmes of Telemedicine and TETRA. The potential relationship between that system and the one proposed here is considered in a later section.

**Recommendation 3: The Distance Education Programme should provide for the following four**

**categories of services:**

**(a) the provision of credit courses in schools.**
**(b) support for other aspects of school programmes.**
**(c) professional development of teachers.**
**(d) use by community groups.**

### Principles of Competing Needs

The four groups of needs outlined above are all potential components of a Distance Education Programme. Ideally, funds would be sufficient to meet all these needs at once, but this is most unlikely. Hence, there is likely to be competition among the different components of the programme. This raises a number of questions. For example, what should be done first and what should be left to later? What should have priority? Should all components be treated equally? Should priority be given to small schools, to rural schools, to high schools?

The answers to these and other questions should be guided by a number of principles, primarily the following.

Student-centered Activities vs Other Uses

The first two components mentioned above (full credit courses and support for other school programmes) are student oriented whereas the other two (teacher development and community uses) are directed to other clientele. While a case has been made for each component, if choices have to made between them, it is the view of this author that priority should be given to the student oriented components.

Practically, this should not cause a serious problem, for student use of the telecommunication system could have priority during and shortly after school hours and the system could be used by the other clientele in late afternoons, evenings and weekends.

**Recommendation 4:** **Student oriented activities should have priority over other uses of the telecommunication system.**

Provision of Courses vs Other School Programmes

A distinction has been made above between the provision of courses and support for other school programmes. Should one of these have priority over the other?

In a general sense, in the view of this author, neither of these components should have priority over the other. Admittedly, most attention has been given elsewhere to the provision of full credit courses, and without detracting from the value of that element, the case was made above that the use of computers and telecommunications as learning resources can and should have considerable positive impact across more subjects, grades and schools than would be the case with respect to full credit courses.

Practically, at a given time in a given school, priority may have to be given to full credit courses. These courses have to be scheduled with the full telecommunication system in mind, and at these times, they will have to take precedence over the other uses.

**Recommendation 5:** **As a general principle, the provision of full credit courses and the provision of support for other school programmes should not receive priority one over**

**the other.**

Needs Assessment for Full Credit Courses

There is the question of which full credit courses should be provided through distance education. The question will have to be addressed each time plans are made for the Programme's offerings.

With so many possibilities of offerings, it is important that a procedure be put in place to determine the needs from time to time. A careful needs assessment procedure should consider a number of factors, such as:

(a) the degree to which the available delivery systems are appropriate to the course,
(b) alternative methods are available, including conventional teaching,
(c) whether or not the course is required for matriculation,
(d) the cost of the development and delivery of the course.

**Recommendation 6: The provision of courses should be based on a careful needs assessment procedure.**

Needs Assessment for Support for Other School Programmes

The procedures for determining the needs of the support services of the Distance Education Programme for other school programmes should be different from those for full credit courses. These uses should be considered as essentially part of the repertoire of the total learning resources of the school system, at present made up largely of books, films, videos, audio tapes, filmstrips, multi-media kits and the like. The procedures for the selection of the resources provided through the Distance Education Programme, therefore, should be similar to those in place for determining other learning resources.

In brief, the present approach to the provision of learning resources in general is that some are provided by the Department of Education, some of which are purchased from commercial sources and others are produced by the staff of the Department or under contract. Some school boards have their own resource centers and produce and/or purchase resources for the district. As well, many individual schools have their own library/resource center.

The Department of Education provides a variety of the more expensive types of learning resources. In general, requests for specific titles come from a number of sources, most often from subject specialists at the Department, school board resource coordinators, resource teachers and classroom teachers. As the number of requests often far exceeds the amount of funds available, the Department has a mechanism in place to determine which of these requests can be met.

It was considered outside the mandate of this paper to comment at length on the provision of learning resources in general. It is assumed that the Commission will have received briefs on the matter and may have instituted its own study. In any event, the Commission will undoubtedly consider the question in some detail and may recommend some changes to the present policy and procedures.

Insofar as this paper is concerned, all that can be said on this matter is that the procedures for determining the specific activities of the Distance Education Programme's support of the school programmes, other than full credit courses, should be similar to those used to determine the provision of other learning resources.

**Recommendation 7: The procedures for determining the specific support of the Distance Education Programme for aspects of school programmes other than full credit courses should be similar to those used to determine the provision of**

**learning resources in general.**

Delivery of Courses: High school vs Pre-high school

It is technically possible and from experiences elsewhere it appears to be pedagogically possible to teach full courses at a distance at all grade levels. However, this author is not aware of any pressing need to offer full credit courses below high school. Nevertheless, it should not be ruled out, and if there is a demonstrated need and the numbers make it feasible, it should be considered.

**Recommendation 8: The delivery of full credit courses should take be restricted to high school unless the need for courses at lower levels can be demonstrated.**

Support for School Programmes: High school vs Pre-high school

There is no educational reason why priority should be given to one level of school over any other with respect to support for school programmes other than full credit courses. There are as many ways in which computers and telecommunication can enrich pre-high school education as are possible in high school.

Reference is frequently made to equalizing educational opportunities between small rural schools and those in larger urban areas. It would be a grave error to conclude that equalizing programmes is important only at the high school level. Inequalities of educational opportunities exit as much in the lower grades as in high school. Numerous studies support common sense that deficiencies in educational experiences at the lower grades will have a negative cumulative effect on performance at the higher grades. As computers and telecommunications can improve educational experiences at all levels, there is as much of an argument for making them available to the lower grades as to the high schools.

**Recommendation 9: With respect to the provision of support for school programmes other than full credit courses, high school and pre-high school should not receive priority one over the other.**

Small Schools vs Large Schools

The impetus for experimentation with distance education in this province grew out of a perceived need to provide educational opportunities for students in small rural schools. This is consistent with most of the distance education programmes elsewhere. However, it would be ill-advised to limit a Distance Education Programme in this province to small schools.

With respect to the provision of courses, it is possible, indeed likely, that large schools, for a variety of reasons, may not always be able to offer some of the courses needed by small numbers of students when they need them. If these courses are already developed, the students should not be prevented from taking them on the grounds of their being in a large school. While the policy should not discriminate against large schools, in conducting the needs assessment it may be advisable to weight the needs in favour of those courses needed in small schools. Once the courses are developed, however, they should be available to schools regardless of their size.

With respect to the Distance Education support of school programmes other than full credit courses, there should be no distinction made between support for rural schools and urban schools. Students in large schools have as much need for learning resources in general as do students in small schools. The same clearly applies to computer/telecommunication resources.

**Recommendation 10: The Distance Education Programme should be available to small schools and to large schools.**

Provision of Computer/Telecommunication Systems

Should all schools be provided with a computer/ tele-communication system? The case has been made above that a computer/ telecommunication system is quickly becoming central to quality education, not only as a means of delivering courses but as a learning resource throughout the curriculum at all grade levels in all schools. It follows, then, that each school has a need for computer/telecommunication system. That is not to say that each school needs the same mix of components; some schools may need only a basic system whereas other schools may need a more complex system. As a matter of policy, however, each school should be provided with at least a basic system. This matter will be elaborated on in the next section.

**Recommendation 11: A telecommunication system should be available in each school in Newfoundland and Labrador.**

## VI. COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

### Introduction

The communication systems used by a distance education programme are of critical importance to the programme's success. Over time and across jurisdictions a wide variety of communication devices and methodologies has been used, including printed materials, letters, telephone, radio, and television.

What types of communication media should be used by the proposed Distance Education Programme? The answer is not a simple listing of media, for there is no general answer. Instead, the question has to be addressed in the planning of each course and each distance education service. No single medium is satisfactory for all educational needs; in other words, communication is need-specific. As well, it is likely that a mix of media is required to deliver a single course. Also, the types of media options that are technically possible and financially feasible keep changing, and sometimes the changes are profound and sudden.

In the following we shall examine the options that are available to educational programmes at present and in the near future.

Educational media of communication may be divided into two categories: "physical media" and "telecommunications".

Physical media

These refer to the modes in which the messages are stored on physical devises. The present or emerging modes in this category are:

(a) **Print media.** Originally distance education programmes used exclusively "print" medium. This was the basis of "correspondence schools", where course instruction was printed, sent to students, normally through the mail, and assignments were mailed back to the tutor. Print is still used extensively as a component of multi-media delivery systems.

A review of research in 1982 concluded that

> the most common form of media used in distance education is print media... However, this extensive use of print media in distance education is reflected more in higher education (correspondence course-like applications) than in public school education

applications. Elementary and secondary distance education tend to use relatively more electronic media than do higher education applications.[16]

As the advantages of electronic media for many aspects of the delivery of distant education programmes are recognized, fewer systems, even at the post secondary level, are relying exclusively on the print media.

**(b) Audio tape.** A common medium as a resource in conventional teaching, audio tape can be an effective and relatively inexpensive medium to meet certain needs in distance education, such as readings of selections of literature by authors or actors, "sound histories" of historic events, and language laboratories for the master of a second language.

**(c) Video tape/video disc.** In recent years video tape has virtually replaced the motion film in conventional eduction. It clearly has a place in distance education, especially where concepts cannot be easily described in words or by sounds alone. The video disc is now appearing as an alternative to video tape. At present it has some limitations, including the lack of an inexpensive and easy way of recording images locally. Its main advantage as an educational media is the fact that the various parts of the image can be accessed more easily and more quickly than on tape. The video disc can also be combined with computer technology for very effective educational experiences.

**(d) Computer.** The computer is becoming an important resource in many aspects of the curriculum in conventional teaching. Teachers are finding that there are many programmes that are effective in a wide range of subjects and grades levels, from reading and mathematics in primary grades to computer data bases in science and social studies in high school. As a "physical medium", the computer programmes are stored on computer discs and used by the individual students as required. As will be noted below, the computer also has applications in telecommunications.

Telecommunications

Telecommunication is taken to mean the transmission of messages by electronic signals at a distance. The transmission may take place through a physical channel, such a wire, or through air or space. Common forms of telecommunication include the telephone, radio, and television.

The telephone system has become an important ingredient of the telecommunication system of many distance education programmes, including the pilot project of the Department of Education. The basic feature of any telephone system is its real-time interactive nature; individuals at a distance can interact with each other through the use of the telephone.

The importance of a communication system that includes interaction between teacher and student and among students in real time is self-evident. It is in this area that changes are taking place most dramatically and may have most impact on the nature of distance education.

### Telecommunication Systems: Present and Near Future

In developing and designing systems, the telecommunication industry considers the transfer of four types of signals:

(a) voice

(b) data (primarily computer data)

(c) image (still and moving pictures, diagrams, etc.)

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[16] William Eiserman and David Williams, Statewide Evaluation on Productivity Project Studies Related to Improved Use of Technology To Extend Educational Programs (Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education, 1987), p. 13.

(d) document (information originally contained on printed pages)

All of the needs mentioned above can now be met through the telephone system, and Newfoundland and Labrador has been a world leader is using the various components of the system for educational purposes. The Telemedicine Unit of Memorial University has developed throughout the province an extensive network that allows for teleconferences.

Audio teleconferencing

By this system, each individual can be heard by all others on the network. This allows, for example, a teacher at any of the locations to present a lecture that is heard by students anywhere on the system. The teacher may stop to ask a question of one of the students, with the response heard by all the other students. Further, the group can have a free discussion with individuals interjecting as they wish.

The Telewriter

In addition to the audio equipment, some centers have recently been equipped with a telewriter system, made up of a computer, a modem, a television monitor and a graphics pad. This allows a teacher and the students to exchange voice and computer data or images simultaneously throughout the system. The images can include words, diagrams prepared on the graphics pad or computer generated graphics.

The Fax Machine

An additional piece of equipment has been added to the system. The fax machine is used in a number of ways, such as the sending of last-minute handouts by the teachers, the returning of assignments by students, or the exchanging of house-keeping notes.

## Developments in the Near Future

Telecommunications are constantly undergoing change. At present there are three dimensions to these changes:

(a) the increased capacity of the carrying channels

(b) the change from analogue to digital signals

(c) the decreased costs of transmission

This means that forms and numbers of signal transfer that in the past were either not technically possible or not financially feasible are now available and within the budget of more and more potential users.

Three developments that have now started and that will have implications for increased capacity and decreased costs in the near future are:

(a) The deployment of a "fiber optics" network throughout much of Newfoundland. The traditional way of sending signals has been through pairs of copper wire and microwaves, but this method is quickly being replace by fiber optics. A single optical fiber, about the size of human hair, can carry many thousands more signals than are possible through one pair of copper wire. One result of this development is that the sending of a moving image, which takes many signals to send the message, becomes more financially feasible through fiber optics than through copper wire.

(b) The increased use of satellites in telecommunications. As the cost of this method of transmission becomes less and less expensive, there can be many beneficial implications for a sparsely populated region like Newfoundland and Labrador.

(c) The introduction of "compressed video". Until now, it has been financially prohibitive to have an multi-way interactive video system to parallel the widely-used audio teleconference system. However, through the digital telephone network, video teleconferencing is technically possible (and is being used by some large businesses now), and is becoming more cost effective.

## Building a Communication System for Distance Education

In order for the Distance Education Programme to be effective, major consideration will have to be given to the installation of the communication system. That overall system should provide for the full range of what was referred to earlier as "physical media" (print, audio tape, video tape/video disc and computer) as well as for a telecommunication system of the latest technology.

This does not mean that each school would need the same array of technologies, for in each case the technological requirements will depend on number and nature of programmes offered in the school.

**Recommendation 12: Each school in the province should have a telecommunication system, the components to be included for each school depending on its programme needs.**

Whether or not all the equipment should be supplied, funded and owned centrally or locally is a matter of policy choice. In the view of this author, a case can be made for both options and the resolution would depend on a larger question of the responsibilities of the various levels within the overall educational system. Whether or not the equipment is provided centrally or locally is not of great consequence. However, there are important questions of compatibility and similarity. This question is part of a larger question of having a telecommunication system in place provincially to meet wide range of needs.

## Guidelines for the Selection of a Telecommunication System

In making the decision about the communication system to put in place, a number of questions should be addressed to help guide the decision making:

(a) Is "user friendly?"

(b) Is it cost-effective?

(c) Is administratively simple?

(d) Is the technology dependable?

(e) Does it have growth potential? Communications technology is changing so quickly that the risk of building in obsolescence is considerable. There is no way to prevent it entirely, but the best insurance against instant and/or unnecessary obsolesce is to seek the advice of experts who know to the extent possible of what innovations are on the horizon and who have no vested financial interest in the decision being made. Hence, it is important to determine whether the system being established is it compatible with emerging technologies

(f) Is a single medium adequate or does it need a combination of media?

(g) Does it meet instantaneous and/or delayed communication needs of the courses?

## Provision of a Telecommunication Network

Telemedicine/TETRA has provided a highly effective programme of telecommunications with a central administrative unit and electronic facility. Using the transmission facilities of the Newfoundland Telephone Company, and end-use equipment provided by a number of agencies, the system reaches many parts of the province.

The system has been put to a wide variety of uses, such as the delivery of university courses, high school courses, conferences of professional groups, and medical consultation. The system has been recognized internationally as providing cutting-edge leadership in the telecommunications in a number of imaginative ways for formal and informal education and for a wide variety of communication purposes.

The Department of Education has made use of the system in its pilot phase. However, the telecommunication uses by the Department of Education and the schools have not be limited to the services provided through the Telemedicine/TETRA network, and it is expected that in an on-going programme, extensive use will be made of telecommunications outside the network. For example, certain data bases can be accessed by schools directly through the telephone network. Nevertheless, a network like that of Telemedicine\TETRA will be essential to the offering of the Distance Education Programme.

The question arises: Should the Department of Education build and operate its own network or continue to use the Telemedicine\ TETRA system, if necessary in an expanded form? It is this author's understanding that technically the network, in its present or expanded form, could meet the needs of the Department of Education, even if its activities were to be increased considerably. It is important that where possible duplication of infrastructure be avoided.

**Recommendation 13: Where appropriate, the Distance Education Programme should co-operate with other agencies such as Telemedicine\TETRA.**

### A Provincial Telecommunication Agency

The experiences of Telemedicine\TETRA, the Department of Education and other agencies show that there is a mushrooming of telecommunication applications to formal and informal education in this province. From discussions with some of the principal agencies in this respect, this author has concluded that there is a danger of a wasteful duplication of systems. Fortunately, this seems not to be a serious problem at present, for some degree of coordination is taking place through a consortium of the principal users of the Telemedicine\TETRA network, but that facility does not have a mandate with respect to all telecommunication uses in formal and informal education. It is therefore not difficult to envisage the emergence of a number of inefficient systems made up of incompatible and outdated equipment, all supported by public funds.

The establishment of a provincial Telecommunication Agency could prevent such a development. While a detailed proposal concerning such an agency is outside the mandate of this paper, a brief discussion concerning membership and mandate may be in order.

#### Membership

The Agency should be made up of representatives of the telecommunication industry and of principal users, including government departments and post-secondary institutions.

#### Mandate

The major functions of the Agency would be as follows:

(a) act as a clearinghouse for information about current uses and emerging needs by members.

(b) act as a liaison for information purposes between users and the telecommunication industry and serve as a vehicle for advice concerning strategic planning by the industry and those institutions either operating existing networks or considering the establishment of new telecommunication systems.

(c) act as an initial consulting service for agencies and institutions which are considering possible uses, but with no prior experience with telecommunication.

(d) establish sets of specifications for the various technical components of a telecommunication system.

The existence of such an agency could do much to ensure orderly developments in this area. While the Agency would have implications for a number of government departments and quasi-governmental institutions, it would be appropriate for the initiative for its establishment to come from the Department of Education.

**Recommendation 14: The Department of Education should take the initiative to establish a provincial Telecommunication Agency to provide for the orderly development of telecommunications to meet the needs of formal and informal education in the province.**

## VII. ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE, PERSONNEL AND FUNCTIONS

A sound administrative structure with carefully defined functions is crucial to the success of any programme, and distance education is no exception. In the following, we examine administrative features that are required for successful distance education.

The nature of the administration of the Distance Education Programme should be addressed within the context of the overall administrative structure of education in the province. In discussing proposals for administrative arrangements to deliver these programmes, consideration will be given to the roles to be played in each case to one or more of the following administrative level of the educational systems:

(a) Department of Education
(b) School Board
(c) School
(d) Classroom

(It should be noted that at the time of writing, the author does not know whether or not the Royal Commission will propose fundamental changes in the general administrative structure, and if proposed, whether they will be adopted by the Government. The recommendations here, then, are made on the assumptions that the administrative levels and their respective functions will remain basically the same as at present.)

A fundamental question with respect to the administration of the Distance Education Programme has to do with the extent to which the various functions of the programme should be centralized. In any distance education programme, there are "originating" locations and "receiving" locations. In this context, the receiving locations are primarily the individual schools. The question, then, is the placing of the originating locations.

The logical answer depends on the function under consideration. For example, in delivering distance education courses, the teacher may be physically located anywhere within the telecommunication network. In the Department of Education's pilot project, teachers have been situated at various locations in the province, and the arrangements have worked well. There is no logical reason why this procedure could not continue in an on-going Distance Education Programme.

There is another set of functions to be considered. They include the decision making with respect to the services to be offered, the curriculum planning and the preparation of curriculum materials and the provision of additional educational programmes. The question arises as to whether these functions should be performed centrally by the Department of Education or by regional or board-level administrative units.

It is the view of this author that the costs of these functions are too high and the population and education budgets of this province are too low to afford the luxury of a totally decentralized system distance education programme. The most cost-effective placement of the central planning and implementation functions is within a special unit of the Department of Education.

**Recommendation 15: The overall planning, development and production functions of the Distance Education Programme should rest with the Department of Education.**

That does not mean that there will no responsibilities for the lower level administrative levels. The other administrative levels of the educational system have roles to play, especially at the levels of the individual school and classroom. In the following, the responsibilities of each level are examined in some detail.

### Department of Education

The essential functions of the Distance Education should be two-fold:

(a) to carry out the Distance Education Programme and

(b) to be responsible for the telecommunication system as it is used for purposes of the Distance Education Programme.

At present the Distance Education functions are performed within the Distance Education/Learning Resources Section. That is a reasonable arrangement; indeed, there is much to be said for combining these two functions in a single administrative unit. If the full programme as recommended above becomes established, the Distance Education functions will have to be expanded. For the purposes of this report, the administrative unit responsible for the Distance Education Programme is being called the Distance Education Unit.

#### Policy Making

Provision should be made within the Distance Education Unit for a mechanism to determine policy that guides the Programme.

The process should include a policy-making group within the Department make up of the administrator of the Distance Education Unit and officials from the Curriculum Section. The areas of policy to be determined by this group should include the following:

(a) Courses and other services to offer
(b) Technologies to use
(c) Sites for the telecommunication system
(d) Budget
(e) Evaluation of system

The policy group within the Department should have the assistance of an advisory group on policy, made up of representatives of school boards as well as principals of participating schools. Their role would be to advise on needs in the field and to provide general feedback to all aspects of the programme.

**Recommendation 16: Policy concerning the Distance Education Programme should be determined by a group established for the purpose within the Department of Education, with the assistance of a provincial advisory group made up of representatives from the field.**

The Distance Education Unit should be made up of two sections:

(a) a Development Section, responsible for the development of full credit courses and support materials and services for other school programmes

(b) a Delivery Section, responsible for the delivery of courses and support materials and services

Development Group

This group should be comprised of instructional developers, subject specialists/teachers, and support staff:

**Instructional Developers.** These specialists with expertise in designing courses would be responsible for working through the planning process from the initial decision to offer a course to the point at which it is ready to be delivered. They would not the experts in the subject matter of the course but in processing. They would engage the subject matter specialists and the support staff in defining various learning tasks arising from the objectives, as well as learner analysis, sequencing instruction, selection of delivery systems, and the selection and/or preparation of materials.

The importance of this group of participants can hardly be exaggerated. A common fallacy is to assume that any content expert can design a course. Equally fallacious is the notion that any good classroom teacher can design a good distance education course. There is a set of skills and competencies specific to course development, especially the development of distance education courses that require the involvement of people with specialized training and experience in this area.

**Subject specialist/teachers.** It is perhaps self-evident that the process of developing a distance education course include the participation of a fully qualified teacher, one who is familiar with the content of the course and who has had experience with teaching that content to students of more-or-less the same age as the intended target group. It is recommended that one or two be hired to work with the instructional developer to develop each course. This may well be a job-specific contractual arrangement, for as will be noted below, the subject specialists/teacher who participates in the development of the course may not necessarily be the distance education teacher who delivers the course.

In the pilot project there was a policy that only teachers released from teaching could participate in the distance education programme. This would appear to be unnecessarily restrictive. It would appear more appropriate to allow the Distance Education Unit to appoint on the most suitable teacher.

Delivery Group

This group should be comprised primarily of teachers, together with their support staff.

**Distance Education Teacher.** This is the "front-line" provider of the learning experience in that he/she is the one in closest contact with the students in the delivery of the course. It is important for everyone in the system (and this includes the students) that the distance education teacher be recognized fully as a teacher. Students should have little trouble with the concept, for they are likely to have more than one "on-site" teacher, so the distance education teacher becomes another of their team of teachers.

The distance teacher would be operating within more restrictions than teachers in the classroom, based on the fact that distance education courses have to be more thoroughly developed before the course starts. Also, the distance education teacher may not be the developer of the course, whereas the classroom teacher carries out many development functions as well as teaching the course.

Nevertheless, the distance education teacher is expected to use the technology skilfully to be see that the delivery of the course is effective and efficient. Equally important, the good distance education will attempt to "humanize' the technology as much as possible. Clearly, the technology presents a problem with respect to certain interpersonal relations between teacher and student that are possible in the conventional classroom. It is possible, however, to compensate to a considerable extent for these deficiencies, and a good distance education teacher will have the determination to try and will develop the techniques to succeed.

Support Group

Support staff will be needed for both the development and delivery groups. With respect to support for the development group, it is impossible to be precise without knowing the courses to be developed at any given time, the other educational services to be provided or the delivery systems to be used. It is likely, however, that from time to time there will be need for such skills as those provided by graphic designers, artists, computer programmers, editors, and video producers. There may be a combination of permanent staff, temporary staff, and contractual work.

There would also be numerous clerical functions, especially in the distribution of materials, receiving assignments, record keeping, and so on. It is likely that it would be most efficient to integrate the support staffs of the development and delivery groups.

As indicated above, the telecommunication functions may be provided either directly by the Distance Education Unit or under contract by Telemedicine\TETRA or by the purchasing of the services from a telecommunication carrier. In any event, if the programmes of the Distance Education Unit grow to any significant degree, there will be need of personnel at the Unit with technical expertise.

**Recommendation 17: Within the Distance Education Unit, provision should be made for the regular appointment of professionally trained instructional developers, fully qualified and licensed teachers and adequate support staff.**

### School Board Level

School boards would need no adjustments to their administrative structure or authority to enable any of their schools to receive distance education courses or support services. The boards should have few problems in accommodating what would be required or expected of them through their present staff and structure.

The following would be their functions:

(a) To make the initial decision to have schools in their system participate in the Distance Education Programme.

(b) To facilitate the school's ability to offer the courses and use the services by assisting in spatial and technical provisions.

(c) To recognize any participation by on-site teachers in the facilitation of distance education courses as professional activity.

(d) In some instances, to have representatives on the advisory group on Distance Education.

### School Level

The arrangements at the school level will be critical for the success of the Distance Education Programme. If the Programme is implemented as recommended, each primary and elementary school could make extensive use of curriculum support materials and other programme support services, many of them making use of a telecommunication system. Each high school, in addition to making use of these applications, may also be offering full-credit courses.

A critical factor in determining whether or not the various components of the programme are used successfully and to the potential is the administrative arrangements at the local level. Research into the degree of acceptance and use of technology in school has shown that the success of innovation in this area is dependent on good administration.

The experiences in the schools engaged in piloting of the full-credit distance education courses are of limited value in planning administrative arrangements of the extent that has been recommended above. In the pilot project, only one or two full-credit courses were offered. Schools made a variety of arrangements with respect to responsibility; often it was the principal or vice-principal. While the ad-hoc arrangements are understandable and workable in a pilot project, it can be anticipated that it will probably not work well in the long run in an on-going extensive programme.

### Roles of the Principal

It is understood that the school principal will have the same general authority and responsibilities with respect to the Distance Education Programme in his/her school as for all other aspects of the school programme.

In those schools having full credit courses, the principal will have the following responsibilities:

(a) making timetable arrangements with the Distance Education Unit to ensure the availability of the courses at the school

(b) having the students registered for the courses

(c) ensuring that adequate space is available for the students while taking the course

(d) ensuring that all materials for the course are on site as needed and communicating any problems with the Distant Education Unit.

(e) arranging for the day-to-day administration of the courses

With respect to the support services provided through the Distance Education Programme, the role of the principal will be much the same as it is with respect to learning resources in general, that is, arranging for space, personnel, time, and, where necessary, funds to provide them.

### Distance Education and the Learning Resource Center

Satisfactory space at the school level is an important consideration in Distance Education Programme. The students taking the distance education courses and those accessing curriculum and programme support services need the use of space that is conducive to the best learning atmosphere.

Another important consideration is the allocation of personnel to carry out the day-to-day functions associated with the various services of the Distance Education Programme. As noted above, the principal will have overall administrative responsibility, but normally he/she would be ill-advised to take on these responsibilities directly. It would be more advisable to have the administrative functions assigned to another member of the staff.

While arrangements will vary according to local considerations, in general, the programme is most likely to be successful if the programme is closely identified with the learning resources programme of the school. More and more schools have libraries/learning resource centers with resource teachers released at least part time from classroom teaching.

The telecommunications equipment and space required for the Distance Education Programme use should be situated within the learning resource center, or an area adjoining it with the learning resource teacher given responsibility for the Programme.

This is advisable for a number of reasons. An important part of the programme will be the instructional support for conventionally taught course and for other school programmes. (Below high school these are likely to be virtually the extent of the programme). As stated above, these uses can logically be seen as an extension of the kind of support now provided through the school's learning resource programme. For example, to have a group of students access an on-line computer data base as part of a course is not different in kind from looking up information in a reference book in the library/resource center. The computer data base may provide a superior learning experience, but does not represent a totally new approach to teaching.

Where high schools will be offering full credit courses, it will also be advisable to have the equipment located in or near the school library/resource center with the resource teacher responsible for the administration associated with the courses. If the equipment is in or near the library/resource center for its use for instructional and programme support, it makes sense to have the students taking full-credit courses there as well.

It is recognized that not all schools receiving distance education courses will be sufficiently large to have a full time resource teacher. However, regardless of the size of the school, a teacher should be responsible for the learning resources of the school, even if that responsibility is carried out on a part-time basis. Hence, the distance education responsibilities could be added to those associated with conventional learning resources, with additional release time from the classroom to carry out these duties.

**Recommendation 18: As a general principle, the Distance Education Programme should be delivered through the school's learning resource programme.**

Roles of the Learning Resource Teacher

The primary roles of the resource center teacher for the distance education programme should be as follows:

(i) With respect to the maintenance and operation of the telecommunication system:
   (a) ensuring that the system is in working order and communicating with the central facility concerning problems
   (b) helping users with the operations of the system as required and accessing help from the central facility as needed
   (c) scheduling its use among support services, full credit courses, professional use by educators and community use.

(ii) With respect to support for conventionally taught courses:
   (a) being familiar with the services offered by the system
   (b) as part of the teaching teams in the planning and implementation of the school's curriculum, informing the teachers as to what resources are available through the Distance Education Programme
   (c) facilitating the incorporation of the Distance Education Programme resources into the teaching
   (d) assisting individual student users to use the system as required

(iii) With respect to the delivery of full-credit courses:
   (a) making the telecommunication system available to students
   (b) taking responsibility for the day-to-day requirements of facilitating the course
   (c) ensuring that the assignments and examinations are returned to the Distance Education Unit
   (d) acting as liaison with the Distance Education Unit.

**Time Considerations.** It is important that when the learning resource teachers are given the additional responsibilities, they should also have the extra time necessary to carry out the responsibilities.

**Recommendation 19: That, where available, the resource teacher should be given sufficient time commensurate with the additional responsibilities.**

**Training.** Well-trained resource teachers are already aware of the pedagogical implications of the new computer-based and telecommunication-delivered resources and the ways in which they apply can apply to the school's programme. Most will not be familiar with the latest technical developments, and will need additional training. This need not be extensive, perhaps in the form of a number of short courses. As well, because of the many changes that are occurring, they will need the continued support of those with technical expertise at the Distance Education Unit and/or the telecommunication facilities.

**Recommendation 20: The school resource teachers should be provided with sufficient training to enable them to carry out the functions assigned to them concerning Distance Education. Also, on a continuing basis, they should be provided with support by those with technical expertise.**

Space and Wiring

The administrators of the schools engaged in the pilot project have provided a variety of types of spaces. In a pilot phase, this was to be expected. With an ongoing programme, however, arrangements will need to be regularized.

**Space in the Learning Resource Center.** In existing schools, if at all possible, the telecommunications system should be located in or near the learning resource center. For uses associated with curriculum and programme support, no special space would be required, for the telecommunication equipment could be used within the resource center in much the same way audiovisual equipment is used in many of them today. However, if the same system is to be used by groups of educators and by community groups, then spatial arrangements will need to be provided. The best arrangement in most cases may be a small seminar-size room adjoining the resource center.

With this arrangement, resource teachers, classroom teachers and students would be able to move freely between the telecommunication equipment and the rest of the resource center. When the facility was being used for distance education courses, the students could be supervised by the resource teacher without interference from students using the resource center for other purposes.

In planning the spatial arrangements for distance education, it should be recognized that the telecommunication equipment may be used by community groups at times when the school is not in session. Access to the school and the part of the school containing the equipment could be an important consideration.

**Recommendation 21: Where possible the telecommunication equipment at the local area should be installed in or near the learning resource center.**

Telecommunication Connections

Clearly an important factor in this programme is the physical connections of the wiring to carry the electrical signals. At present, with the use of copper wire, a telephone line is needed for each work station. Depending on the extent to which the programme is developed and used, it is possible that schools could need several lines. If the recommendations concerning the role of the resource center in the programme are implemented, these lines would terminate in that location.

Building Specifications

The matters related to space and telephone wiring need to be considered when new schools are being planned and when older schools are being upgraded. Provisions for these matters should be included in the School Building Manual of the Department of Education.

**Recommendation 22: The School Building Manual of the Department of Education include references to the spatial and wiring needs of distance education with respect to new schools and renovations of existing schools.**

## VIII. COSTS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

Education through any means is expensive and that a good technologically-based distance education system will not be inexpensive. No attempt is being made in this paper to estimate the costs of the proposed Distance Education Programme as there are too many variables that are not known to the author at the time of writing. Clearly, however, finances are a major factor to be taken into consideration as plans are made with respect to a Distance Education Programme.

The following are some general statements concerning matters to be considered in taken into account in calculating the costs of the programme:

### Costing the Programme

The question "How much will a Distance Education Programme cost?" has no simple, definitive answer. No attempt will be made here to estimate these costs as there are too many unknown variables, including the specific elements to be considered for costing. However, some general observations may be in order.

With respect to the provision of the "learning resources" services of the telecommunication system, the situation is likely to be similar to the funding of conventional learning resources in general. At present in each fiscal year the government provides a fixed amount to be spent by the Department of Education and the schools on learning resources. As well, some school boards and individual schools allocate other funds to supplement the government allocation. It is anticipated that the same financial arrangement will be made for the funding of the support services of the Distance Education Programme.

With respect to the costing of full-credit courses, a comparison can be made between the delivery of a course by distance education and by conventional means. It should not be assumed that in every instance the cost of delivery of a course by distance education will be more expensive than by conventional means. Doug Young and Leon Cooper has demonstrated that in some instances a distance education course may be less expensive than a conventionally taught course and has drawn on experiences elsewhere to support their case.[17]

In calculating the costs of the various components of the Distance Education Programme a number of considerations should be noted, primarily the following:

### Development Costs vs Delivery Costs

A distinction should be noted between the costs of development and those of delivery. This is true of both credit courses and the other support services of the Programme. Clearly, in arriving at a true cost of the course or service, the development costs should be prorated over the life of the course or service.

### Start-up Costs vs Continuing Costs

The largest outlay of capital expenditures can be expected in the initiation of the Programme. Subsequently, capital expenditure will be limited to expansion, upgrading and replacement. In costing the Programme over a period of years, the initial outlay of capital expenditure should be prorated over the period.

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[17] Leon Cooper and Doug Young. Distance Education: The Newfoundland and Labrador Project. A Background Report to the Royal Commission on Education (St. John's: Department of Education, 1991).

### Equipment Costs vs People Costs

It should be recognized that in order for the Programme to be successful in the long run, the cost of the people in the programme may well exceed that of the equipment. Too often one sees examples of finances being available to purchase equipment but with a shortage of funds for adequate use of the equipment. As a general principle, a commitment should be made to invest in providing the programme with adequate numbers of the best people available.

### Sharing the Costs

It has been recommended above that the telecommunication system in the school be made available to community groups and other users. Many of these uses may involve other Departments of Government and other institutions in society. In general there should be charges for such use of the system, thereby recovering some of the expenses.

### Cost Effectiveness

In some instances it will be possible to compare the cost of providing educational experiences through distance education with that of some other means of delivery. However, in many instances, that will not be choice. It will be a choice of providing the experiences through distance education or not providing them at all. In the latter situation, the equation becomes much more difficult, for the "cost" of providing or not providing the experiences are not so easily calculated quantitatively. While some analysis can be done of the economic benefits of having students reach a certain level of education (as has been demonstrated in the Report of the Commission on Employment and Unemployment), there are many less tangible outcomes of education that should be considered. How does one put into a statistical equation, for example, the personal and social benefits accruing to young persons in an isolated school in a small community on the coast of Labrador as they realize their potential through interaction with other students at a distance and learn to deal with sophisticated technology? Such outcomes should not be ignored because they cannot be easily quantified.

**Recommendation 23: In calculating the costs of providing distance education, the following principles should be considered:**

**(a) start-up costs should be prorated over time**

**(b) development costs for courses should be prorated over the life course offering**

**(c) provision should be made for adequate funding of personnel**

**(d) costs of the telecommunication should be shared by user groups**

**(e) in determining cost effectiveness of distance education, consideration should be given to intangible as well as tangible outcomes of the experiences.**

## IX. EVALUATION OF THE DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAMME

Any educational programme should be subject to thorough and frequent evaluation, and the proposed Distance Education Programme should be no different in this respect.

The criteria against which a Distance Education Programme are in part the same as those in any other educational programmes and in part unique to the nature of distance education.

Keegan states the following as the basic criteria of successful distance education programmes:

(a) An extensive philosophic base.

(b) An appropriate organizational structure.

(c) Adequate resource allocation.

(d) The use of specialized educational techniques in designing learning experiences, writing self-instructional materials, developing appropriate teaching strategies and providing adequate student access to learning resources.

(e) Production processes that allow materials to be published in pedagogically sound and attractive format using audio, video and print as appropriate.

(f) An efficient course "delivery" system in its widest sense, including the development of an effective support system to meet the needs of students at a distance both before enrolment and as enroled students.

(g) Programs for staff training and development.

(h) Evaluation and monitoring procedures to improve the system."[18]

As with any educational programme, the proposed Distance Education Programme should be subjected to constant informal monitoring by those directly responsible for the programme. As well, a clearly articulated process of periodical formal evaluation of the programme and its various components should be undertaken.

**Recommendation 24: Provision should be made for informal and formal evaluation of the Distance Education Programme.**

## X. CONCLUSION

In the view of this author, distance education in public schools has proven itself. Especially with the application of modern media of communication, there has been ample evidence that it can be used to deliver quality education to students who would otherwise not be able to get it except at great expense and disruption to the personal and social aspects of their lives.

As a general model of education delivery, there is no longer any need to engage in testing and piloting. Experimentation on particular components will always be needed, and this is particularly the case with respect to the technologies of communication. Innovation is being introduced so quickly in that area that no single communication system or combination of systems can expect for long to be immune from examination, replacement or modification. But as a programme, it should now be seen as a reasonable alternative to conventional education in meeting the needs of particular groups of learners.

In proceeding with a policy, there is need to avoid extremes of attitude. One the one hand, it is not a perfect programme, as conventional education is not perfect. The limitations must be recognized and reduced to the extent possible, but with the realization that certain limitations will remain. Unbridled and uncritical enthusiasm should also be avoided. On the other hand, excessive caution is equally dysfunctional. We should not take the stance that if we wait long enough someone else somewhere in the world will solve all the problems and all we will have to do is adopt their solutions. On the contrary, we should see that we are in a position to provide leadership and help find solutions that will help us and may have applications to the problems of others. Fortunately, there is some evidence that is already occurring, and it should be endorsed and encouraged.

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[18] Keenan in: Alberta Department of Education, Perspectives on Distance Education (Edmonton, 1987), p.13

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*PART IV*

# Critical Goals for Education

What does it mean to say that each child should have an equal opportunity to have access to an education system which allows him/her to develop to his/her full potential? Within the education establishment "equal" has too often been interpreted to mean the same as "same", or "one size fits all", rather than every child having **equal access** to a schooling experience which is **appropriate** to his/her needs and abilities. In chapter 10, with the involvement of a number of researchers and professionals, Charlotte Strong was asked to identify groups which are not being adequately served by the education system, and to recommend corrective action.

On any number of measures, the quality of schooling in this Province has been less than desirable. Important questions about our system of education need to be raised. Can children in our schools continue to underachieve in relation to children in other jurisdictions? Can the expectations of every individual be raised far enough to improve the quality of schooling and bring the education system into the global world of the twenty-first century? More specifically, should attainment targets be set for students at different age levels and having different needs? What attainment targets should be developed for schools, districts and provincial agencies? What are the consequences of not reaching targets (penalties), and of reaching beyond targets (rewards)? Indeed, if our goal is to enable every student to reach his or her potential, without appropriate measures how will we ever know when we have reached that goal.

Accountability is the framework within which delegated responsibilities are evaluated in some way. A set of objectives, expectations and performance indicators is established to facilitate the accountability process. If the education system is to respond to new and ever more challenging needs, there have to be structures in place to question, not just the programs and services, but the very philosophies and assumptions upon which the system is based. In chapter 11, Robert Crocker was asked to examine ways to improve the quality of schooling in the Province through the establishment of relevant performance objectives and attainment targets for all levels of education and the development of strategies to ensure they are achieved.

## Chapter 10

# EQUALIZING EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

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> Full many a gem of purest ray serene
> The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear
> Full many a flower is born to blush unseen
> And waste its sweetness on the desert air.
>
> Thomas Gray, *Elegy*. (1751)

## I. EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY

### School and Society

The Commission was specifically instructed by its terms of reference to "consider the matter of accessibility for those groups and individuals who may not now be adequately served". All children, regardless of need and ability, are required to attend school, and the *Aims of Public Education for Newfoundland and Labrador* make clear the principle that all children should have an equal opportunity to learn. The present school system serves some of its clients to a greater extent than it does others, as the interaction of social, economic, personal, and educational factors combine in a number of ways to facilitate or impede an individual student's ability to become a successful graduate, developed intellectually to his or her potential, prepared to undertake post-secondary study, earn a living, and participate successfully in society.

Either implicitly or explicitly as a society we value education and accept that all students should have an equal opportunity to succeed. But students do not arrive at the kindergarten door equally ready to profit from instruction. Once there, children's home and social environments support or mitigate the school's efforts to different degrees. Many factors place students at risk of failure. Other factors inhibit their ability to fully develop their potential. The personal, financial and moral costs of a poor education are cumulative and lifelong.

The goals of the education system set out government's intention to see that students develop to the extent of their ability in five fundamental ways: emotionally, personally, spiritually, physically and intellectually. In order for these goals to be attained certain minimum conditions must be met, although not necessarily through the education system. In this sense the education system is not only inextricably linked to other government departments and elements of society, it is actually *dependent* upon them to achieve its goals. Several submissions to the Commission made the point that hungry children will not be able to learn nearly as well as children who are well nourished. Similarly students who have emotional disorders or who are experiencing emotional distress as a result of divorce, abuse or neglect are placed at a serious disadvantage in the educational environment if agencies under whose jurisdiction these concerns fall do not take responsibility for rehabilitation. Some impediments to learning, such as lowered self-esteem resulting from placement and labelling, are the result of school policy and practice, but most have their source outside the school walls. Unless problems are addressed, teachers are left with the consequences in their classrooms without the resources to adequately deal with them. Unless this problem is articulated and appropriate steps taken, it will be inevitable that even though many teachers will continue to do what they can students will remain incapable of achieving school success for reasons which are unrelated to academic ability. As recently as September, 1991, the State of Michigan unveiled its plan for school reform in which it stated that accomplishing the goal of achievement for all children will not occur unless two challenges are met: ensuring that children of all social backgrounds graduate from school with the skills required to add value to the economy and participate fully in democratic society; and ensuring that no child be condemned to permanent marginal status in society because of socio-economic circumstances and inadequate schooling.[1]

The schools have a crucial role to play in all areas which affect learning, but that role is in need of clarification. It should not be a "pick up the pieces" role, a "referral" role when it is known that agencies are seriously under-resourced and incapable of adequately solving the problem, or a role of blaming children or their families. At a minimum, *schools must be sensitive, responsive environments.*

The 1988 Royal Commission on Education in British Columbia considered the issue of the social role and responsibility of the school to be crucial to its investigation. "The school's ability to achieve its educational purpose will continue to depend on how well the various social services agencies address the developmental needs of children in a concerted manner." The Commission noted that failure to address the needs of socially and economically disadvantaged students and others having special needs" will render meaningless whatever educational recommendations the Commission makes".[2] Sullivan was clear on the issue in stating: "When a child is troubled or underfed, or if a child cannot benefit from schooling because of learning or other disabilities, it is the teacher, the other students, and the school who must live with these difficulties. The child, or the child's problem, will not simply disappear if untreated. So it is, therefore, in the interest of educators to deal with such problems..." The report added that it is appropriate and efficient for the school to become the *base* for service delivery: "Because the school with is captive population, offers society its most systematic point of contact with youngsters, the school represents an ideal and efficient organizational structure by which to deliver a variety of health and other social services to young people. For that reason, there is an organizational imperative behind the school's expansion into the social domain."[3] *The school, however, should not be responsible for the provision of such services.*

The Alberta government has adopted a similar position, based on the observation that the ways in which schools are supported and the range of support services they are equipped to provide have not kept pace with societal changes. "Government and community supports will be provided in a coordinated fashion through the school, *while keeping in mind that the school's primary function is to provide instruction.* ... Schools must now be the focal point for the delivery of a variety of services to Alberta children and their families."[4] This new vision foresees the provision of comprehensive family services through the schools, including pre-school day care, after-school care, home visitation programs, training for family care providers, early intervention programs for children at risk, counselling services for children and their families, and comprehensive non-instructional services to maintain disabled children in schools.

The recent school reform document produced in Michigan followed the same theme: "Extra support is needed for youngsters most at risk of school failure: ...1) extended day kindergarten for at-risk kids, 2) tutoring services for K-2 pupils performing below grade level, 3) *initiatives for children living in poverty* --a) family education, b) *social, health and human service resources placed in public* *schools (eg., health care, counselling, nutrition education, drug abuse treatment, etc.)*[5]

A narrowed focus for the school will necessitate broader responsibilities for other agencies if educational goals for all students are to be realized. Fundamental changes in attitude, inter-departmental relationships, and school administration will be required.

**The Changing Social Context**

The context in which schools function has changed dramatically in the last several decades. A Commission of Inquiry into the Newfoundland education system in 1934 strongly encouraged the retention of public examinations at the end of grade eight because for many students a diploma at this level constituted a graduation certificate. In the decades prior to that report education would largely have been reserved for an elite group. In making school attendance compulsory to age 16 there must be an acceptance of responsibility to have schooling meet the needs of all who are required to be there. Since Confederation there have been great strides in education in Newfoundland. Now even in the remotest outports can be found well constructed, well equipped schools, staffed by well trained teachers.

"In 1900 nine out of ten youngsters did not graduate from high school, but there was no high school dropout problem. At mid-century, when as many dropped out as graduated, there was not any reason for public concern. The avenues to self-sufficiency, indeed to prosperity, were still many and varied. A young person could become a successful, participating adult by quitting school and going to work, as easily as by remaining in school until graduation. But all that has changed in the high-tech last quarter of the century. Today there is only one way to adult self-sufficiency -- the school way."[6] Increasing competitiveness among economies is leading to a world in which "every factor of production other than workforce skills can be duplicated anywhere around the world. ... It is all interchangeable ...all except for one thing, the most critical part, the one element that is unique about a nation: its workforce".[7] Ross pointed out that the Canada of the near future, in which there will be more elderly persons than workers to support them, will require the very best education and human resource development in order to maintain our current standard of living, and that we "will simply not be able to afford around 16 percent of its children growing up poor with the consequences this has for low levels of education and an unskilled labour force".[8]

The world these schools must prepare students to face has changed dramatically in the past several decades and change is occurring at an increasingly accelerating rate. This has been called the "information age". Knowledge can no longer be thought of as a relatively static body of facts. Even fundamental assumptions about time and space are continually being redefined. Because of television and modern transportation Newfoundland students now know much more about North American lifestyles than did previous generations. As more families require two incomes to maintain a satisfactory standard of living, more children will require skill in household tasks. Advances in genetics and reproduction technology make more choices available. The structure of families is changing: families are smaller, divorces are increasing, the number of adolescent parents is increasing, and the roles for all family members are changing. The numbers of reported cases of abuse, suicide, and delinquency are increasing. Medical advances have resulted in the survival rate of premature infants, and have enhanced the functional capacities of children born with disabilities and school-aged accident victims.[9] There is a trend toward "de-institutionalization"; many children with severe disorders are being placed in community settings and attending regular schools. The use and abuse of drugs during pregnancy has increased; the result is often a serious negative impact on the functional and learning abilities of children. Although there have always been many children with special needs, more students are being *identified* as being in this category.

The labour market which tomorrow's graduates face is constantly undergoing change, but in the last decade fundamental changes have occurred. In the past large numbers of Newfoundlanders have relied on the manufacturing jobs in mainland Canada and the fishing industry locally and both areas have been affected by global economic, technological and political forces. The Newfoundland economy has continued to rely primarily on natural resources, but has had to contend with the effects of technological developments, such as fish farming; economic developments in other countries, including increased competitiveness; and changes in the economic relationships between countries world wide.

A great deal of manufacturing is now done in the third world, and Canadian factories which employed poorly educated workers have closed permanently. Pollution, overfishing, and improved technology have seriously reduced the viability of fishing, at least in the traditional sense, as a means to earn a living. Many Newfoundland and other Canadian workers now find themselves unable to find work, and cannot easily retrain in a new field. Most jobs which have been created have largely been in the service sector, and these do not offer the same security or income. Other new jobs require a high level of technical expertise. Now and in the foreseeable future most workers will have to change jobs during their working lives, and will need to have an educational background which will enable them to take advantage of opportunities to seek new employment options. Matching training programs to employment appears to be a difficult problem to address.

### The Value of Education

The purpose of schooling is to at least in part to develop the well being of students and society. All citizens are stakeholders of the education system. To quote Norman Gobal:

> ...both morality and rationality require:
>
> (a) that the primary goal served by school programs be the healthy and successful integration of the individual, as a responsible and self-regulating adult, into the social collectivity; and
>
> (b) that the pursuit of this goal be open to everyone, and as far as possible facilitated equally for everyone, whatever may be his or her strengths, weaknesses, talents, needs, handicaps or interests.[10]

The education system cannot be considered to be successful if its graduates are unable to personally become self-sufficient, but equally important is the need of a well educated population to society and particularly the economy. The type of industry developed in or attracted to the province will largely depend upon the abilities and skills of the local workforce. In the past there was much greater opportunity to find unskilled work than is now the case. It has been predicted by some that by the year 2000 virtually all jobs will require at a minimum a high school graduation certificate. It has been argued by others, however, that the employment market is a "zero-sum game", that higher education attainment may simply place an individual student further ahead in the queue for increasingly scarce jobs. While continuously developing technology may increased the skill levels required for some jobs, others may become obsolete or routinized. Some economic and labour analysts argue that many new graduates in the coming decades will enter low-paid service sector jobs that seriously under-utilize their skills, and others face futures marked by unemployment and marginal employment.[11] Recent labour market trends support this claim, in that the greatest area of growth has been in the low-paying service sector. "Schools can do little to prepare students for employment and place students in decent jobs if those jobs do not exist."[12] This situation particularly applies to Newfoundland youth. While in mainland North America traditional jobs are being replaced with those requiring different skills, in this province resource-based industries are in decline, and efforts to industrialize have been ineffective. To a large extent in this province we are educating for export.

### Summary

Since joining Canada in 1949, the social, economic, and historical context supporting the

Newfoundland education system has undergone change at an extraordinary rate. The desire for modern services has led to the abandonment of many small and isolated communities. The education system has substantially expanded and improved, and there has been a dramatic increase in the number of high school graduates and students who proceeded to post-secondary institutions. As impressive as these achievements are however, a significant number of students do not succeed in Newfoundland schools.

While it is difficult to make long range economic forecasts when change occurs so rapidly at least one conclusion is inevitable: we cannot afford to "educate the best and leave the rest". Whether or not the school system is seen as the route to economic salvation, all students will be entering a complex, competitive job market, and will need to be prepared to interact with it productively.

In 1908 the Church of England superintendent of education in Newfoundland, in speaking to a St. John's audience about his experience of visiting schools on the Northern Peninsula and the need for increased resources said, "We are here dealing with Newfoundlanders of the future. And from there will come our leaders in many spheres."[13] This is still a significant plea nearly one hundred years later, when we must be concerned not only for the leaders, but for all citizens.

## II. SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BARRIERS IN EDUCATION

But Knowledge to their eyes her ample page
Rich with the spoils of time did ne'er unroll;
Chill Penury repressed their noble rage,
And froze the genial current of the soul.
Gray, *Elegy*

There are a number of groups in the province who are not adequately served because they are excluded from the governance of the system. Aboriginal people, francophones, and those of denominations and religions other than those included in the present structure of the denominational system have serious concerns about the way in which the system is responsive to them. These concerns are dealt either in separate commissioned papers or other aspects of the Commission's work.

This paper will focus on issues related to social and economic barriers in education and the way in which the curriculum does not meet the needs of all students in our schools. In today's society not only do all but the most seriously ill attend regular schools, but there is an expectation that all should leave school having had a good education. Education is seen to be the ticket to prosperity, both in an individual and provincial sense. Simultaneously there is a recognition that this is virtually an impossible task: some children are thought not to be able to succeed. Two important points need to be highlighted. Firstly, the cost of school failure is very high -- to the individual student, to the society, and to the economy; and secondly, the means to ensure success are available.

### The Cost of Failure

> ...at-risk students represent the threat of the failure of democratic society itself, the fear that we are creating, mainly in our inner city neighbourhoods, an ineradicable, untrained underclass plagued by a self-perpetuating pathology of joblessness, welfare dependency, and crime.[14]

The Newfoundland social environment is a far cry from the inner cities of the United States. However, the graduates of our education system will either be contributing participants in society or place a great strain on social and economic support services. Most children who do not successfully complete schooling will pay a heavy personal price for the rest of their lives. An undereducated population represents a huge waste of resources.

The is not a new discovery. What is becoming more and more apparent is that this is a waste which can be prevented, and one which we can ill afford.

> There is agreement, at least at the level of rhetoric, that the failure of our education system to provide all ... youngsters with basic skills exacts a high price, whether measured in personal, moral, or economic terms. There is also increasing recognition that early school experiences, especially for disadvantaged youngsters, impact powerfully not only on educational outcomes, but, because of the centrality of schooling in children's lives, also on rates of delinquency and early childbearing.[15]

Although not completing high school appears to be the central issue, factors related to a student's inability to succeed go back to the primary and elementary years, to the pre-school environment, and even as far back as the pre-natal stage when factors affecting the health of the mother were significant for the health of the growing baby. Dropping out of school before graduation is but a symptom of a myriad of contributing problems.

## Poverty and Achievement

Poverty has always been with us and may always be, but because its effects can be recognized as being significant in the educational sphere, attention has been directed towards this issue in recent years. Poverty strongly influences many factors directly related to the health and well-being of children. In a national Canadian study of disability, poor children were shown to have twice the rate of mental and physical disability as children from high income families.[16] A mother's inadequate pre-natal diet affect the development of the child during pregnancy. Low birth weight is one common result and is associated with increased incidence of still births, neonatal deaths, poor infant development, cerebral palsy, mental retardation and lower intelligence. Congenital anomalies are twice a prevalent among low birth weight babies and neurodevelopmental handicaps are three times as likely.[17] [18] Children experiencing these problems will have much more difficulty in school than children who are not poor.

The Ontario Child Health Study of 1989 which investigated the percentage of poor and non-poor children 6-16 years of age with various health and related problems found that twice the percentage of poor children than non-poor children suffered from emotional disorders, hyperactivity, conduct disorders, and poor school performance. Children from low income families experience a greater incidence of chronic health problems including bronchitis and emphysema, asthma, digestive disorders, arthritis and rheumatism, hypertension, anaemia, mental disorders, sight disorders, diabetes, and heart disease.[19] A child's development can be affected and retarded by a poor diet. There have been links shown between inadequate nutrition and later behavioural problems in children, and these links are particularly strong for poor children.[20] Poor nutrition contributes to poor health, which diminishes ability to learn and results in loss of instructional time. Further, the ill-health of parents owing to inadequate diet, including prolonged hospital stays, disturbs the natural and settled care patterns which healthy parents are able to provide for their children during the developmental years.[21]

In addition, there were twice as many smokers among the poor population surveyed, which will increase the likelihood of contracting a number of disorders.[22] The Canadian Teachers' Federation succinctly described the problem in the 1989 publication Children, Schools, and Poverty:

> Low-income children are more likely than their middle and upper-middle class counterparts to experience hunger, the effects of inadequate child care arrangements, behavioural problems and low self-esteem. While not all low-income children will have difficulty in school, many experience less motivation to learn, delayed cognitive development, lower achievement, less participation in extra-curricular activities, different types of teacher-student interactions, negative effects of streaming, lower career aspirations and expectations, interrupted school attendance,

lower university attendance, and increased risk of illiteracy and higher dropout rates.[23]

The C.T.F. paper supports the view that the education system, as currently designed, does not provide poor children with the resources required to overcome the disadvantages they have upon entering school, and that poor children face an uphill struggle to succeed in spite of having equal access to educational programs.

Adding to the evidence is the recently produced House of Commons subcommittee report on child poverty in Canada.[24] The report concluded:

> The health problems of poor children begin before birth and...poor children are at greater risk of death, disability and other health problems throughout infancy, childhood and adolescence. Poor children also have school drop-out rates that are more than double those of the non-poor, as well as poor school performance, more behaviour related problems, lower attention span, increased truancy, poor attendance, erratic behaviour, hyperactivity, aggression, delayed cognitive development, lower achievement and lower self-esteem. And poor children are disproportionately involved in persistent offenses, whether on the street, at school or in the home.

Increasingly it is argued that schools are being "asked to do too much", that the problems children bring to school with them cannot possibly be solved by school personnel. Teachers in particular have said that it is becoming more and more difficult to cope with the increasing demands of the curriculum, and to meet society's expectations that schools will somehow be able to correct problems which lie beyond the classroom door.

The primary obligation of schools to society is to see that students learn. When the barriers to learning are related to individual learning problems the education system has grown to respond well. However, the education system has traditionally been reluctant to accept responsibility for problems which are perceived to be social and economic. Because other government and community agencies do not accept responsibility either, students who would benefit from intervention strategies are left unserved.

A recent survey by the Literacy Secretariat and the Canadian Teachers Federation indicated that 30 percent of students are impeded by illiteracy. C.T.F. stated that it is unfair to blame the schools for this failure, as many children come to school unable to learn because of poor nutrition, abuse at home, and a variety of language and other barriers that make it difficult for them to grasp what is being taught. "To expect that pure education [the school] is going to deal with this is dreaming in Technicolour. ... The only way we are going to reduce the scope of the literacy problem is to recognize that it is a societal problem, which will only be resolved if we get all segments [of society] doing their share of the job."[25]

Problems beyond the academic domain are not strictly the responsibility of the school, but their consequences reverberate through every aspect of a child's school career. The factor which underlies most of these is poverty. Twice as many poor children fall behind in educational achievement by the age of 15, and the rate of children not in school is twice as high for poor families as for other families.[26]

> A major, and life-long cost to society of raising children in poverty is that they perform poorly in school; drop out of school in greater numbers before completing high school; and end up more frequently as low-productivity and intermittently employed workers. ... There are two main reasons: a deprived material environment leads to many unmet needs and alienation, which is detrimental to providing a proper learning environment; and poor physical and mental health resulting from being raised in poverty, making learning difficult.[27]

In the country as a whole one child in six is poor.[28] Newfoundland and Saskatchewan have the highest rate of child poverty in Canada: in Newfoundland 20.5% of children live in poverty. In this province 26.8% of families are poor, and 72.9% of these families are headed by a single female.[29]

> Evidence indicates that children in poor families are disadvantaged from the start. During the preschool years these children may not have received adequate nutrition which is necessary for healthy development and may not have had the opportunity for the enriched experiences of quality

> child care. Their environments may not have been conducive to learning due to the economic stresses experienced by their parents; or their parents themselves may be unable to help their children to become school-ready due to their own illiteracy or low educational attainment.[30]

It could be argued that schools shape the society of the future and they should be used to eliminate the causes which are at the root of social problems. Whether or not this view has merit, there are undoubtedly practical limitations on pursuing this course. On the other hand it could be argued that schools have a strictly academic mandate and should leave social problems to individual families or social agencies to solve. What is agreed is that *all* children have a right to an education, and this will not be possible to achieve unless social and economic problems are identified as barriers to success and sincere efforts made to reduce and ultimately eliminate their force.

> School quality reflects the quality of the society which shaped it.
>
> Schools have come to be acknowledged as escape-valves for those wishing to overcome the social and economic circumstances of their birth. From the beginnings of public education in Canada and the United States, educational promoters saw schooling as a way of providing social justice and economic stability as well as a means of instruction in literacy and computation. Recent educational policy in Canada and the United States assumes equality of access results in equal opportunity. Since sociological findings offer little support for the notion that schooling causes equality, the educational assumption of Canada and the United States is highly arguable. Unfortunately, the schools cannot ensure equality of outcome. Despite a public policy which has opened access to educational institutions, the distribution of social wealth has changed little.[31]

This failure cannot be attributed to genetic factors. Clive Beck cites research by Bowles and Gintis who through a series of studies of individuals with the same cognitive ability but differing socio-economic rankings, were able to show that there is virtually no *causal* connection between cognitive ability and economic success. "....There is no innate deficiency, and even if there were, it would not be the cause of their poverty. ...Their analysis shows that the greater economic success is the result not of superior cognitive attainment but rather of privileges accorded people with more years of schooling and other factors associated with a higher SES level."[32] What is associated with economic success according to Bowles and Gintis is years of schooling, which is strongly related to risk factors associated with poverty.

Implicit in the view that schools are the ticket to prosperity is the belief that schooling can enable children to overcome any feature of their home environment which would be a barrier to success. In the decades since compulsory attendance became common policy it has become evident that unless schools directly confront social and economic barriers which many students face, the schooling experience will not be effective in achieving the implicit goal of the present system of having all students leave the system equally educated, the goal of "equifinality". It has been argued that schools in fact have always reinforced social *inequality*. Laurie Walker has written persuasively that the schools' advocacy of Standard English, for example, while necessary to "make possible the sharing of particular meanings among privileged members of a community", has always reinforced class bias in society through the schools.[33] There is unavoidable advantage to those whose speech is declared standard and a similar disadvantage to those whose speech is declared divergent or deficient by comparison to the standard.[34]

In order to learn children need to have basic needs met. If children are distracted by hunger, severely distressed because of suffering from some form of abuse, emotionally torn between two parents who cannot get along together, they are going to be unable to profit from instruction and failure will be the result. For socially and economically disadvantaged children failure begins early. Lack of pre-school stimulation results in being ill prepared for school. Poor attendance due to inadequate clothing, food, or transportation results in a loss of instructional time, which eventually results in children being unable to keep up with their classmates. Once students see themselves as failures it is more difficult to change that attitude, even if their personal circumstances change. In most cases failure to succeed in school can be traced back to the primary years. "...the difference in reading and related school achievement between children of high and low income families becomes even greater beginning with the fourth grade than it was in the primary grades .. [and] the children of low income families are especially vulnerable to academic failure beginning with the middle and upper elementary grades and continuing through high school and college"[35]

Nathan Glazer has summarized much of the research conducted on intervention programs in the United States.[36] Results were initially equivocal, but in general the more recent the study the more likely is the result to show that programs have been effective in reaching disadvantaged children. The pre-school Head Start program has been extraordinarily successful, but positive effects are most noticeable in the primary years. Glazer cites reading researchers Jeanne Chall and Harry Singer in stating that academic achievement in the primary years is more influenced by school factors than by home and community. After children have made the transition from learning to read to "reading to learn", usually after third grade, general knowledge becomes an increasingly significant factor in school success, and students from a deprived or disadvantaged family usually begin to fall behind.

When poor children encounter all the middle class biases of the education system their self esteem is eroded and their lowered expectation of success becomes a contributing factor to lower achievement. Teachers' expectations have been found to be lower for children from families receiving social assistance, leading to differential treatment, further contributing to lowered self-esteem and self-concept. By the time these students reach high school deficits have become well entrenched, and it is unlikely that disadvantaged students will catch up.[37]

According to Radwanski (1987)

> "Virtually every study ever done on the dropout issue has found a strong link between family background and the likelihood of dropping out. The lower the income level, occupational status and level of education of his or her parents, the greater is the statistical risk that any given student will not complete high school. ...the influences of family socio-economic background are a more powerful factor than a student's innate mental abilities." p.78

### The Role of the School

Under present circumstances schools are staffed and curriculum is developed as if social and economic barriers do not exist. In not giving them official recognition as being relevant to the activity of the school, serious problems result:

1. Those on the "front lines" are often in the position of having to make a personal response, such as providing food out of their own pockets or offering counselling without having any training to do this properly, without having any support or resources, or knowingly leaving serious needs unmet.
2. Responses are of necessity *ad hoc.* The effects of serious social problems require a well researched and well thought out response and provision for continuity.

There is a *cycle of disadvantage* which must be broken by some means if social and economic problems are not to carry on into succeeding generations. Children who come to school with an insufficient pre-school preparation for instruction, and who then are not fed adequately, begin to fall behind from the very beginning of their school careers. Failure to master basic skills, grade repetition, and special education placement are all reliable predictors of dropping out of school. Students who leave school before obtaining a graduation certificate will likely be marginally employed or dependent on government support, resulting in their own children growing up in an impoverished environment, beginning the cycle over again. If these school dropouts begin having children while they are still very young, and especially if they become single parents, the prospects for the next generation are further diminished.

"A distinctly encouraging school environment that enhances a child's values and competencies is important in ameliorating a child's risk status."[38] If schools are not part of the solution they are part of the problem. Schools now are part of a system which contributes to the cycle of disadvantage and failure experienced by poor children. If schools reinforce negative trends and do not act to reverse them it is highly likely that a segment of the school population will not succeed.

It is legitimate to ask what the school's role is in breaking the cycle of failure, but as the importance of education to the well being of persons and society is being increasingly acknowledged, some issues which have heretofore been ignored must now be brought into the discussion and taken seriously.

In the past 25 years there have been a number of reform movements active in the United States, and the effects of these movements have been felt in Canadian education circles as well. In the 1960s there arose a genuine concern for disadvantaged students in the United States, resulting in the development of pre-school intervention programs. In the seventies studies stressed the significance of family background, claiming schools merely reinforced advantages and disadvantages, both genetic and environmental. In the eighties research showed the effectiveness of compensatory education, as the economy felt pressure for the need for good workers in order to compete with foreign economies. As the political climate has undergone change, so has the focus of new educational efforts. Most recently school reform programs have focused on increasing the pressure to achieve excellence. This movement has been criticized as being insensitive to the needs of the disadvantaged, a criticism accepted by the author of the 1983 report A Nation at Risk, who stated four years after the release of that report that the school reform movement did not reach the 30 percent who are low income and come from minority backgrounds.[39] The current challenge is to seek the residual truths from all these research trends, in order to make the education system accessible and responsive to all students. "Poverty is a learning disability that is not cured by higher expectations."[40] "Tightening the screws" without creating necessary conditions for success cannot possibly result in an equitable, responsive, effective education system, and ironically the effect of some current efforts to improve education, such as stiffer graduation requirements, may have the effect of increasing dropout rates, contributing to increased unemployment, welfare dependency, crime, and the emergence of a large and permanent underclass.[41]

The school's appropriate role has many components. In not articulating the role of all youth serving agencies in the community in developing the young people of this province, school personnel are left to deal with overwhelming problems which have an impact on children's learning, and very few of these problems lie exclusively within the educational domain.

School is where the children are. Teachers and school principals do not have the time, training, nor resources to be social workers, counsellors, and health workers. Children need coordinated services, but these services may need to be delivered by a team composed of people representing numerous professional areas. *Schools need to become a base for the provision of services to address the needs of children*, and school based personnel -- teachers, guidance counsellors, and administrators -- need to be involved in a meaningful way in the development of school-based programs. The mobilization of community agencies and other government departments is crucial if the underlying causes of children's problems are to be addressed and if the efforts of educators are to be maximized. "It's no use telling kids who can't produce in the first place that you want more from them....Raising standards and doing more of the same...is wrong." The climate and context that make learning possible must be considered.[42]

An effective school is one in which all students have the optimum opportunity to learn and are motivated to take full advantage of that opportunity. Effective schools programs may be initiated for a number of reasons, but as a school cannot be considered to be effective if all students are not served well, the result will inevitably be that disadvantaged students will be significant beneficiaries.

The characteristics of "at risk" youth have been succinctly described as follows:[43]

**Academic:**

-low basic skills test performance -- results significantly below peers or a consistently low set of scores on valid tests

-poor grades -- in basic skills areas or across all subject areas

-below grade level performance, especially in basic skill areas

**School/social:**

-one or more years older than other students in the same grade. This indicator has been shown to be the most significant single predictor of dropping out.

-attendance problem -- not attending school on a consistent basis (absent once a week or three or more times a month)

-discipline problem -- especially a pattern indicating that disciplinary action is not serving as a deterrent

-no extracurricular involvement

-frequent transfer between schools

-lack of motivation and/or interest in school

**Home/social:**

-family in lower economic level

-unstable home

-low educational level of parents/siblings

-poor attitude of parents toward school/graduation

-limited or no English proficiency

**Personal/social:**

-employed in a job that interferes with schooling. Generally, employment over ten hours a week is considered potential for interference; over 15 hours, a serious threat.

-poor health or easily fatigued

-negative self concept

-alcohol and/or substance abuse

-pregnant or parenting

### The Need for Co-ordination

Fragmented and departmentalized funding and administration is a major impediment to the development of programs for socially and economically disadvantaged children. A significant step forward in maximizing professional efforts would be to focus on the needs of children who are not succeeding, and develop *coordinated* programs to address the need. At present the same student who may have numerous learning, behavioural and social problems will have each problem dealt with in isolation from all the others. "Specialists come to a school and each takes a piece of the kid."[44] This thought was echoed in the Sullivan Commission report, which cited the need for better communication among agencies and departments serving children, as the problem with the existing service system is that it is "fractionalized".[45] In many areas of this province specialist services, especially in the fields of sexual abuse, learning disabilities and behavioural problems, are rare if they do exist, and lack of coordination further dilutes what is eventually delivered to an individual student.

One local program which has attempted to direct its efforts to the whole family. Pre-school children perceived by social workers to be disadvantaged are referred to a centre where they are able to participate in a pre-school program which adequately prepares them for school. Strong links are established with the parents, who learn how to stimulate and support their children's learning at home, and who themselves can avail of literacy instruction and pre-natal nutrition counselling. Programs in other jurisdictions have recognized the importance of involving the entire families of disadvantaged children. The very successful Perry Preschool Project[46] and the Kenan Trust Family Literacy Project[47] are examples.

The Brother T. I. Murphy Centre in St. John's is an alternative school for students who have dropped out of the regular system. Their brief to the Commission made two crucial points, backed up with solid documentation:

1. The financial cost of not adequately educating our youth is far greater than the cost of intervention and alternative programs, and
2. What is required is a child-centred, integrated approach.

There does not need to be a conflict among the goals of excellence, equity, and accessibility. All children need to know that they are worth educating. Educators need to know this is possible.

Problems faced by disadvantaged Newfoundland youth are not necessarily the same as those faced by disadvantaged youth in other parts of North America. However, the wheel does not need to be reinvented as attempts are made to address the concerns identified here. Many kinds of alternative delivery programs and intervention programs both at the pre-school and higher levels have been in place in other jurisdictions for a number of years, and the acquired field experience should be of value in creating programs here.[48] In addition, a number of local projects such as the Daybreak Parent-Child Centre, the Conception Bay South Teen Parent Support Program, and the St. John's School Lunch Program have been successful.

## III. SPECIFIC SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC ISSUES RELATED TO EDUCATION

What follows is a more detailed look at some particular current areas of concern. The list is not intended to be exhaustive, but does reflect the areas of concern expressed in numerous submissions to the Commission.

### Child Hunger

Many children in Newfoundland are growing up in poverty. Many children in Newfoundland are hungry. Hungry children face serious barriers to learning.

People are officially classified as "poor" when they spend 58.8% of their income on necessities such as food, rent, heat and light.[49] Most of the basic expenses of a poor family are fixed: if the rent is not paid the family is evicted, if the electricity bill is not paid service is discontinued. The food budget remains somewhat flexible. The report A Time for Change prepared by three local health and social work associations[50] found that a family of four living on social assistance in Newfoundland would have to spend from 69 to 101.1 percent (an average of 82 percent) of its income on *food alone*, depending on where in the province the family lived, in order to meet minimum nutritional standards.[51] Low income, whether the result of being a social services recipient, having a low-paying job, or being a single parent with high child care costs will thus inevitably be associated with poor nutrition and inadequate amounts of food to feed the family. These conclusions are amply supported by evidence from the field. One teacher who operates a drop-in breakfast program has noted that there is a clear pattern of higher usage during the latter part of the social services cheque cycle.

Further evidence of difficult financial circumstances is seen in the following statistics:

- There are 54 food banks operating in rural and urban areas of Newfoundland. Twenty-nine of them are in St. John's.
- As of September 30, 1991, there were 53,687 people in the province dependent upon basic social assistance.
- There are more than 31,700 people in the province living in rent-assisted or rent-reduced housing.
- The official unemployment rate, which takes into account only those who were actively looking for work and not those who have given up the search, was 17.8% in September, 1991. In January, 1991, there were 43,000 officially registered unemployed people in Newfoundland.
- Patrick House, a shelter for homeless women in St. John's, served 200 women from September 1990 to September 1991. 117 of these women were under the age of 21. During that period the shelter received 895 follow-up calls from former residents.
- Poverty is not restricted to those receiving social assistance: 12% of working Canadians use food banks.
- 65.7% of single mothers in Canada lived in poverty in 1987.
- There are more food banks in Canada than outlets of any single grocery or restaurant chain. In the autumn of 1990 about 590,000 individuals received monthly aid from food banks, an increase of 53 percent from the spring of 1989.[52] About one third of those who rely on food banks are children.

One local school board member said to the Commission, "It is ludicrous to expect teachers to ignore hungry children or ask them to teach with a major impediment to learning present -- namely hunger."[53] Feeding hungry children is a first step in creating minimal conditions to enable learning to occur. When hungry children are not fed they miss school,[54] cannot keep up with school work, begin to fail, and are very likely to drop out of school unable to adequately support themselves or the next generation of school children. While hunger is a concomitant of many social problems, the school's concern is the relationship to educational achievement. Educational goals cannot possibly be met if necessary conditions which make achievement possible are not established. These points are well illustrated by the finding of the evaluation of a local school lunch program that when hunger is removed as a barrier, the attendance record for those in need rose by 48 percent. For children whose families were able to pay the full cost of meals there was no difference in the attendance rate.[55]

### Effectiveness of School Food Programs

The link between school lunch programs, good nutrition and educational achievement has not been concretely established in Canada, and specifically in Newfoundland, because of the relatively recent appearance of programs in this country. However, research into the physiological ramifications of poor eating habits is conclusive: malnourished and undernourished infants and children sustain considerable detrimental physical and emotional trauma. Good nutrition is vital for proper physiological development through the fetal, infant, child and teenage stages of life.

Botkin, et.al. established that proper nutrition is essential for proper brain growth and functioning to maximize learning potential.[56] In 1982, studies by Lillian Putnam and Doris Pertz, undernourished children were consistently found to have poor academic achievement and lower IQs.[57] Nutritional problems such as calorie deficiency, protein deficiency, protein excess, sugar excess, lead poisoning, iron deficiency and vitamin deficiency all contribute to impaired learning through diminished mental abilities, reduced energy, or behavioural disorders (Norwood, 1984).[58] Pollitt[59] (1984) pointed out that while nutritional deficiencies have not been causally related to learning ability, nutritional deficiencies such as anaemia do represent *educational risk factors*, and place in jeopardy the progress of children in school. Accordingly, it is reasonable to assume that targeted nutritional interventions will have preventative or therapeutic effects.

It is important to distinguish between hungry and malnourished and/or undernourished children. All children who are hungry are not necessarily undernourished (although prolonged bouts of hunger will eventually lead to nutritional deficiencies), while malnourished children are not necessarily hungry. Local research has shown Newfoundlanders, in general, consume large amounts of food lacking the vitamins and minerals necessary for healthy development and healthy living. School lunch programs can supplement children's diets with well-balanced, nutritious, good-tasting food. Thus, it is not just poor children who can benefit from school lunch programs, but in fact all school children in this province.

Breakfast programs, a relatively new but growing phenomenon in North America, are also considered highly conducive to learning. Pollitt et.al. [60], 1983, demonstrated this principle in a controlled experiment involving 9 to 11 year old, well-nourished, middle-class children. The results showed that the children who ate a healthy breakfast before school made fewer errors in problem-solving exercises while those who fasted were easily distracted from their school work by extraneous stimuli and were more likely to use ineffective cognitive strategies in problem-solving. In addition, the data suggest that lack of breakfast also had adverse effects on emotional behaviour, arithmetic and reading ability, and physical work output (Putnam and Pertz, 1982).[61] These findings are supported by the experiences of local teachers. Further, Dr. Alan Meyers (1988) of Boston City Hospital, found that Breakfast Program participation by low-income children is associated with significant improvement in academic performance as measured by standardized achievement test scores, significant improvement in tardiness rates, and a trend toward improvement in absenteeism.

Stein et.al.[62] also demonstrated higher reading achievement amongst students who participated in a breakfast program. The experimental group showed a 7 month gain in reading scores, compared with 5.25 for the control group. Lunch programs have also been positively correlated with reading achievement. Tseng, Mellon and Bammer[63] reported that students who were in school lunch programs in Tennessee schools had higher stanine scores on word meaning, spelling, and language achievement than those who were not.

Overall, however, studies correlating nutrition and school lunch and breakfast programs to long term educational achievement have been inconclusive. This may be the result of the inability to isolate hunger from the numerous other variables associated with poverty. It may also be the result of lack of health care for the poverty stricken and working poor in the United States where many studies have been conducted. Canadian children have free access to medical services which, when combined with a school breakfast and/or lunch program, would likely see a greater effect that the American programs. Any program which increases school attendance will inevitably have at least an indirect effect on achievement. Further, although not a panacea for all poverty-related issues, school lunch and breakfast programs have a proven positive effect on the short-term learning ability of children and, in some instances, on developing good nutritional habits. In order to be most effective school feeding programs should be incorporated into multifocal intervention programs that combine nutrition supplementation, health care, educational stimulation and nutrition education (Pollitt, 1984).[64]

### Establishing food programs

There is a precedent in this province for nutritional intervention: during the period of the Commission of Government in Newfoundland, in spite of policies of restraint which resulted in widespread hardship, a nutritional supplement, cocoamalt, was supplied to every rural school student. It was a controversial program, some people feeling that it was a progressive move but others feeling that it would result in dependence on the government. As was found at a local school when a lunch program was introduced, the promise of nourishment "attracted more students to the school house than the modern combination of 'baby bonus' and truancy officers, especially in winter time".[65] In the early fifties cocoamalt was replaced with cod liver oil, and eventually nutritional supplements were discontinued.

There are a number of significant factors related to the issue of child hunger.

**Hunger is not the child's fault.** Children are dependent on their parents or guardians to adequately feed them. A hungry child may come from a family in which the parents try their very best to provide for their children, or may come from a family in which the parents are irresponsible. Whatever the cause, the resulting hunger of the child will affect his health and educational achievement in the short term, and his economic security for a lifetime.

**Child hunger is a hidden problem.** Very young children will tell a teacher they are hungry, but as children get older they become more aware of the stigma attached to being poor. One local teacher who works in a school where many children are poor has noted that some children dismissed to go home at lunchtime do not actually go home for lunch but instead walk around the area and return to school hungry. At the high school level the problem is so well hidden most teachers do not believe the problem exists, yet studies show that it does.

**Dealing with child hunger is not the sole responsibility of educators, but it is teachers who must deal with its effects.** It is in the interest of school personnel that children's basic needs be met.

**Child hunger can most efficiently be dealt with through the school.** All children are required to attend, and they are in the school building for a major portion of their day.

**Programs in which it is known who is being given free food are not successful and do not last.** Except for very young children, the stigma attached to being perceived to be poor is at least as painful as the hunger itself.

Hungry children are either not going to be in school or will be preoccupied with meeting this most basic human need. If money is to be spent on this problem, it should obviously spent wisely, in a way which will eliminate hunger as a barrier to learning. This is not a problem which has not been recognized. The two largest St. John's school boards have conducted surveys to assess the extent of the problem and have established committees to seek solutions. The provincial government established an inter-departmental committee comprised of staff from the Health, Education and Social Services Departments and the Executive Council to survey school boards on the need provincially and to explore viable options. This committee used two methods to calculate the extent of the need for school food programs in this province. Twenty-seven school boards responded to the Committee's questionnaire, and eighteen of these felt that there was a problem in their area. From these responses the report estimated that over 2000 children in 491 schools are going to school hungry. To estimate the cost of school food programs a different method was employed which calculated that 32,527 children would need to have free or subsidized food provided. This number was based on the National Council of Welfare figure that one in four children is growing up poor in this province.

The inter-departmental committee and others have alluded to many ways to address the problem of hungry children in our schools. Cost is a major concern, but other considerations include availability of facilities, potential interference with commercially operated food service businesses in schools, reaching children of junior high and high school age, the potential negative impact on present volunteer activity and the need for a high degree of commitment from all those involved (including school staff). What is certain is that academic success for poor children will remain elusive unless means are found to transform obstacles into challenges which can be overcome.

Addressing the Problem

No two schools and school contexts are alike and any proposed solutions will need to take local conditions into account. Cost, however, must be viewed in relation to the cost of not feeding children who are hungry, and these are described above.

Programs which take full advantage of community businesses, service organizations, parent volunteers, and corporate sponsorship will enable the same amount of government funds to stretch further and be more effective. Universal programs which offer appealing meals to both paying and non-paying children have the advantage of providing a built in subsidy, as subscribers who can afford to pay can be charged slightly more than the actual cost of the meal to help support those who cannot.

Not only children benefit from school food programs: school food programs serve several agendas simultaneously. Food service workers acquire marketable skills. They are likely to be drawn from the pool of those receiving some form of income support. Thus a school food program not only feeds children who are hungry but also enables those employed on the project to have meaningful employment, provides these workers with an opportunity to use their acquired skills in the private sector, or build on these skills to develop further opportunities, and reduces social services or unemployment insurance expenditure. The children of the food service workers are able to experience improved economic circumstances, decreasing their risk of school failure.

Child hunger is not exclusively a Newfoundland problem, as income levels, unemployment rates, the number of food banks and the emergence of school food programs in other provinces indicates. It has been estimated that in permitting 80 percent of the cost of business meals and entertainment to be deducted from taxable income, the federal government forfeits *$1 billion annually* in lost tax revenue.[66] Deciding *who* will be the recipients of food subsidy is a matter of public policy, and heightened public awareness of the prevalence and damaging effects of child hunger may be required before the wili can be found to intervene in a way which significantly improves the chances for school success for poor children.

What is required is that funding mechanisms be explored which would lessen the dependence on government for program funding. The cheapest means need to be found to feed hungry children in schools which maintain the anonymity of those being served and are able to capitalize on volunteer, community and business resources.

## Gender Equity

What children experience in school affects them for their entire lives. Belief in this claim is what motivates educators to strive for more effective programs and services. Newfoundland in the 1990s is an open, inclusive society based on principles of justice for all, but there are still those who *as a group* suffer from others' intolerance and stereotypical expectations. Unhealthy attitudes in any institution of society deserve critical attention, but the education system bears a special responsibility to promote concepts of fairness, as to a large extent attitudes, beliefs, habits, and knowledge acquired through the schools will significantly affect coming generations as well as the present.

Public attitudes have changed significantly in the past number of years, and much of this change is reflected in legislation and policy which attempts to ensure fair treatment of all members of society. However, to move from the level of rhetoric to meaningful change is difficult when personal attitudes are deeply held. Nowhere is the gap between policy and practice more evident than in the area of gender equity, effectively exemplifying the problem of attempting to remedy injustice in the education system in isolation when it is but a part and a reflection of a wider societal power imbalance. Without deliberate intervention and positive action strategies, future generations of women will continue to experience an environment which does not offer equal opportunity. The rate of diffusion of ideas is known to be slow in the education field, precisely the opposite of what is required for the change to occur which would permit the attainment of the goal of education that *all* children should be educated to their full potential. Unfortunately, still, female potential is viewed as being lower that it is.

It is appropriate for the education system to address this issue for at least two reasons. Firstly, if Newfoundland educators take seriously the position that the education system should be fair to all, each child, female or male, of European decent or of a minority background, healthy or ill, able bodied or disabled, should be recognized as having equal worth. Secondly, the education system by its nature is the most effective vehicle for meaningful change.

Society's values touch children in school in a number of specific ways.

1) To a large extent teachers are role models for children. When they see most senior administrative positions filled by men and primary and elementary classroom teaching positions filled by women, for example, they learn that what is acceptable is that "women tend the children while men manage the women".[67] In a brief to the Commission, the Newfoundland Teachers' Association pointed out that in this province even though 54.2 percent of teachers are women, there are only 19.1 percent in administrative positions. Further, there is not one female district superintendent, and only 6.5 percent of assistant superintendents and 27.9 percent of program coordinators are women.[68]

2) Gender bias and a bias toward the cultural superiority of the dominant cultural group is a feature of not only the intended curriculum, although there has been a great deal of improvement in this area, but also of the hidden curriculum. When boys are asked to move the chairs while girls clean the chalkboards; when male doctors are referred to as doctors but women as women doctors; when classroom posters reinforce the idea that the those who work in the home are usually female; when schools are staffed so that those having most authority are male -- children learn through these subtle and other not so subtle ways that men and women share power and influence unequally in society.

What children learn as they go through school not only provides them with information to use in their present and future lives, but also provides them with their personal and social history and set the stage for decisions about their personal future and has implications for the society they will shape. If inequities in society are to be redressed, educators need to become aware of what they are, and what their negative consequences are for all. Gender dynamics in schools and society may contribute to anti-democratic biases which violate the egalitarian goals of education. Social inequities also affect those who work in the education system. Women who work as teachers and administrators face invisible barriers.

Economic forces have served to change family life in the past number of years, and they have throughout history. During the period of the Second World War many opportunities opened up for women because men were not available. However, these changes were not accompanied by fundamental changes in attitude which would have permitted these developments to form the basis a redistribution of power. Women were still subject to layers of decision making in which they had no input and influence. Today married women with two children work 85 hours per week in a combination of paid employment and household-related work, compared to 65 hours per week for men.[69] Women now have greater opportunities to participate in the paid labour market, but still earn only 65 cents for every dollar earned by men. In this province pay equity legislation was recently proposed but postponed because of budget restrictions.

Changes in society and home life have occurred without there being sufficient preparation to cope successfully. A minority of families are now led by two adults. Many more men and children need to have skill in household maintenance, especially cooking and nutrition, as the Home Economics Association brief to the Commission pointed out.[70]

### Addressing the Problem

The Canadian Congress for Learning Opportunities for Women, Newfoundland Network has suggested the following means of redress:[71]

1. Action should be taken to ensure that women's experiences are valued throughout the school system, in the curricula, teaching methods, teachers attitudes and the administrative structure. This will involve actively recruiting women to positions of decision making at the school board and administrative levels, including women's experiences in the curricula and ensuring that sexism is not subtly encouraged

in any way.

2. Schools must actively prepare *all* students for their future as workers with family responsibilities.

3. That career counselling be made available to every student and that the policy and guidelines recommended by the federal/provincial/territorial Working Group on Career Counselling be adopted by the Department of Education and circulated to all school boards.

4. To see that the outcomes of education are equally positive for both males and females, it is recommended that a comprehensive approach to structural change in the school system be adopted and that scarce educational dollars not be used to maintain the denominational school system.

The Ministerial Advisory Committee on Gender Equity in Education made a number of recommendations in its submission to the Commission and noted the need for in-service education for all who work in the education system on the issue of gender bias and stereotyping.[72]

## School Dropouts

School dropouts have not been well served by the education system. Students drop out of school for a myriad of reasons, and many of these are not always known, even to the students themselves. A recent Newfoundland study of early school leavers by Spain and Sharpe (1990) described the situation as follows:

> For most, the process of early leaving is an extended one. Probably the conditions which led finally to leaving develop over time. For some, it is likely that a decision is never made to leave. One day, the person just fails to return for the final time.[73]

When asked to state a reason for dropping out of school the early school leavers in that study said they left school because they found school uninteresting, they found the work too difficult, they had a chance to get a job, they had personal problems, or they were pregnant.[74] Seventeen percent of females in the sample stated that they left school for this reason, but as females were over-represented in the "poor health" and "personal problems" categories, there could well have been many more.

In areas of the country where there are jobs waiting for early school leavers, economic circumstances may prompt many to leave. In this province the poor economy may suggest to many students that obtaining a high school certificate is not worth the required effort. In some cases very able students leave school early. A 1987 study conducted by the Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's[75] showed that 90 - 95 percent of a cohort of young people who had dropped out of school during 1977 - 78 had scored in the average or above average categories in reading, language and comprehension, and 83 percent had scored average or higher in mathematics. In the 1983 - 84 group of dropouts, 66 - 74 percent of the students scored in the average or above average range. An Ontario study[76] found that 20 percent of the dropouts in their survey had at some time in their schooling skipped a grade.

Students are required to stay in school until they are 16 years old, but many students have in effect dropped out long before that time. Early leaving is usually preceded by periods of absenteeism. Spain and Sharpe have proposed that while it may be the case that students fall behind as a result of missing school time, and the resulting failure and loss of self esteem prompt dropping out of school, it is also possible that the intent to leave was formed before the extended absenteeism began.[77] There is a substantial amount of evidence presented in other sections of this report to suggest that social and economic factors play a significant part in student achievement, and that poor success of students who eventually drop out of school can be traced back to the primary school years. Although questions about school climate, classroom conditions and curriculum relevance at the high school level inevitably surface in discussions about student retention, dropout prevention efforts are probably most effective when conceptualized as being a long-term project and best directed at the early years of schooling. Problems escalate in severity. Many of the problems which manifest themselves as disruptive behaviour at the junior high school level, for example, have their source in earlier grades.

In recent years there have been significant efforts made to increase the student retention rate. There is now a student retention consultant at the Department of Education, retention committees operate at the high school level, and the high school curriculum provides a greater number of general interest courses for all students, not only those who are not planning to pursue academic studies at the post-secondary level. In September, 1989, the Department of Education published a comprehensive document on dropout prevention which addresses the broad range of contributing factors related to leaving school early, and proposed measures to address these problems at the government, board and school levels. These measures have been successful in reducing the number of early school leavers, but two issues remain: there is still a very high dropout rate of 33 percent[78] and there are still many students, possibly more now than before retention initiatives were undertaken, who attend school but feel alienated from the education process and who often present severe challenges to teachers, administrators and other students as a result.

The focus of this section is not dropout prevention, but rather the problems faced by the population of young people who have left school early and thereby face serious impediments to their ability to participate in the economy and lead fulfilling lives.

The St. John's Community Services Council[79] in its brief to the Commission stated that in attempting to assess the needs of young unemployed people to develop a suitable program for them, the need for *academic* upgrading was cited most frequently by the prospective students as their greatest barrier to employment. Agencies which provide services to this age group as well as high school teachers agree that it is difficult to teach students who do not want to be in school. By the time early leavers come to realize the value of a high school certificate they are usually too old, even at eighteen or twenty years of age, to easily fit back into regular high school life. There are a number of options available to early school leavers, including the GED examination for those who are able to study independently; Adult Basic Education; and BTSD (Basic Training and Skill Development). These programs are offered through the community colleges. Because many early school leavers face social barriers as well as academic inadequacies, programs such as the T. I. Murphy Centre and the R.E.A.D.Y. Centre which offer counselling and support in addition to academic programs have been established.

Once students leave, their options are limited. Because of their low education level, even if they had a job upon school leaving, it is highly unlikely to be long lasting or career oriented. For most early leavers, lack of financial resources presents a serious barrier to continuing education, and is the reason many drop out of programs designed to help them.

The preferred option of those who work with early leavers is to place them in established high schools if at all possible. The program options are greater in that setting, and are able to prepare students for a variety of post-secondary institutions. However, non-academic needs of dropouts often prevent them from succeeding, and not all high schools are willing or able to accommodate them. Both the Murphy Centre and the R.E.A.D.Y. Centre offer a much more intense counselling and guidance service than is possible in a regular high school in which a low allocation of guidance counsellors, subject teaching and heavy teaching loads render it difficult for students' personal circumstances to be given due consideration.

In an age when virtually all jobs require a high school certificate, the likelihood of unemployment for early leavers is certain. Tax money will have to be spent on school dropouts either as social services payments or as economic support for education pursuits, and the latter will have long term benefit. As relatively minor a problem as not having enough money to afford a bus pass can sometimes prevent a student from obtaining a high school education. Children between the ages of 16 and 18 years of age are not eligible for social assistance unless they under the protection of the Department of Social Services.

Addressing the Problem

At present attempts to address the needs of young people who have left school and who wish to obtain a graduation certificate are uncoordinated and poorly resourced. It is beyond the scope of this paper to outline specific remedial action, but the problem cannot be left to chance to be resolved. A number of suggestions follow:

- In its attempts to develop strategies to deal effectively with the problem of early school leaving, the Department should include in its target group those who have already left school. In the same way that the Department has set out strategies to prevent early school leaving, the Department can facilitate the development of means to render high schools more receptive to students who wish to "drop back".
- While it might be desirable to have all high schools receptive to older students, it is likely that some students will be unable to succeed in the tightly controlled high school environment. There is a role for alternative high schools, and advances in educational technology should make it possible to establish centres and offer a wide program in areas of the province where there is a demonstrated need.
- An evaluation of upgrading programs conducted through the community colleges would enable these programs to better respond to the academic, social and personal needs of early school leavers.
- As is the case in many problems areas, the combination of fragmentation and duplication of service seriously impede the likelihood that an early school leaver will be well served. One project offered through the Canada Employment and Immigration Youth Strategies Program developed a grass roots, coordinated, locally sensitive approach to youth transition to the work force. A team of several community resource people attempt to assess the early school leaver's needs and abilities and design coherent remedial action. The T. I. Murphy Centre has proposed a similar youth-centred model to foster collaboration among agencies and services which now exist to serve the needs of young people, including social assistance, custody, child care, youth corrections, education, probation, the business community, community clubs, employment services, and the court system.
- Means should be sought to provide financial support for students which would enable them to pursue an education program instead of being forced into a low-skilled job/unemployment insurance pattern.
- Although the co-operative education program does not provide students with an income, it does offer an alternative route to completion of a high school program. Ways of enhancing the flexibility of this program should be sought so that early school leavers can "drop back" by taking advantage of the individual training plans of the co-operative education program, supplemented with courses delivered in the school.

## Teenage Pregnancy

It is now commonly acknowledged, and studies such as Canada, Youth and Aids[80] have demonstrated, that premarital sexual activity is common among teenagers. Teenage pregnancy no longer carries the stigma it once did. It may appear to be paradoxical that teenage pregnancy is a significant issue at a time when birth control information is more readily available than ever before, and most students have studied sexuality in school. However, knowledge in itself does not prevent pregnancy; nor does it cause it. Public preventative programs of sexuality education in school, family planning services in public health units and access to abortion services have not caused adolescent pregnancy rates to rise and have not increased sexual irresponsibility.[81] Many studies in recent years have indicated that teenagers feel invincible, and feel that pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases happen to other people. As common as sexual activity is among this age group, it does not usually occur in the context of a stable, long term relationship in which sexual activity would be anticipated and planned for. Other reasons for not taking steps to avoid pregnancy include the fear that parents will find out[82] and ignorance or lack of cognitive maturity to understand physiological processes, contraceptive techniques, and the consequences and probability of pregnancy.[83] It has also be pointed out that there has not yet been developed a method of contraception well suited for use by teenagers.[84] Teenage boys are much less likely to worry about pregnancy, partly because they do not get pregnant themselves and partly because they are excluded from the resolution of an unwanted pregnancy.[85] In many small communities in Newfoundland there are no stores which sell condoms, or they are kept behind the counter and must be asked for specifically.[86] "There are many reasons for teenage motherhood. Ignorance is one, lack of access to the means for avoiding it is another. Not wanting -- or not wanting enough -- to avoid it is still another."[87]

Teenage pregnancy is an issue related to education primarily for two reasons. Firstly, the babies born to teenage mothers are at risk of school failure because generally speaking teenage mothers are not able to provide their children with adequate nutritional, educational, or economic support. Secondly, the teenage mother is at risk of dropping out of school because either the pregnancy, subsequent child care demands or both render it difficult to succeed in a school system of inflexible timetables and course delivery options.

### The scope of the problem

The live birth rate among Newfoundland teenagers in the 15 - 19 age category has been decreasing rapidly in recent years, from 80 per 1000 women in 1972 to 46 per 1000 women in 1980. In 1986 there were 1069 live births to women under 19, in 1987 there were 993, and in 1988 there were 959.[88] However, the rate of live births to teenagers in Newfoundland is the second highest in the country and is still 70 percent higher than that for the whole of Canada. Broken into smaller age groups, the birthrates are decreasing most rapidly among older teens, less rapidly for 15 -17 year olds, and remaining constant or increasing for those teens under 15.[89] A study published in 1987 indicated that 15 percent of all babies born in Newfoundland are to teenagers.[90] These figures should not be surprising considering that Newfoundland teenagers start sexual intercourse earlier, have less access to sex education and have more sexual partners than their counterparts in other provinces.[91] More young women carry their pregnancy to term in this province than elsewhere in the country, but one third of all abortions are to teenagers and nearly three quarters of aborting women are single.[92]

It is not a straightforward matter to calculate how many of these teenage mothers had their schooling interrupted. A recent study of early school leavers showed that in the school year 1989 - 90, 2107 students dropped out of school before graduating. The official school report indicated that 16.6 percent of females officially stated pregnancy as their reason for leaving. However, pregnancy is not specified on official forms as a reason for dropping out, thus "medical", "other", or "personal" categories may include incidences of pregnancy. When the students themselves, in the Youth Transition questionnaire, were asked an open ended question about their reason for leaving, 84 women (17.4 percent of the females interviewed, 6.6 percent of the total sample) named pregnancy, but again pregnancy may have been included in other "personal" reasons, such as "poor health", "personal problems", or "wanted to get married".[93] *Four out of five* unmarried teenage mothers in this province choose to keep their babies and raise them alone.[94]

### Costs

Meeting the educational, health and social service needs of pregnant and parenting teenagers is a challenging task, but not meeting them frequently leads to long term personal and societal problems, including repeat pregnancies, babies with health and developmental problems, and families living in poverty from generation to generation.[95] Approximately 80 percent of teenage mothers and a majority of teenage fathers are likely to drop out of school, and it is unlikely that either the teenage mother or father will obtain any post-secondary education.[96] The majority of teenage parents, with little education and few job skills, have limited employment options and earning potential. Even if the parents marry, prospects are bleak: three out of five teenage marriages end in divorce or separation within six years resulting in the child(ren) being raised in a single parent home with all its concomitant negative features. The children of teenage mothers are more likely to need high cost special education services: there is a higher chance of birth defects, and the children of teen parents are more prone to exhibit mild behavioural disorders and to experience emotional problems.[97] Low birth weight is more common among babies born to teenagers, and is associated with many disabilities which affect learning ability. Children of teenage parents frequently become teenage parents themselves.

Addressing the Problem

"Education is an important piece of the teenage pregnancy puzzle."[98] Traditional sex education is not enough. Research has repeatedly shown little correlation between participation in a unit on sex education and the level of sexual activity. Simply incorporating a unit on sex education into other course-work may increase students' knowledge, but it rarely changes their behaviours. However, it has been suggested by local educators that the sexuality course now taught in grade nine should be given much earlier. Researchers have warned that teenage pregnancy is often the result of a congeries of interrelated factors: poverty, low self-esteem, and academic failure -- or the sense that academic study is irrelevant. It is the experience of a local counsellor that for many pregnant teenagers pregnancy appears to be the *solution* to a host of immediate personal problems, a means of gaining economic independence and escape from an intolerable home situation. One researcher has suggested that sex education be expanded beyond a one or two week session in high school to become part of a 12 year learning program with a broader agenda that includes encouraging young people to set long term goals and to think beyond the present.[99] It has been suggested that teenagers need to understand why being a parent is inappropriate so early in their lives. "The most fundamental reason for high rates of school-age pregnancy ... is that far too many youngsters reach adolescence without hopes or plans for the future that seem compelling enough to deter them from early parenthood."[100] They need to be encouraged to establish career goals and to appreciate the value of educational attainment and employment skills.[101]

Factors which influence the decision to return to school include the attitude of the school staff and their encouragement, insistence of parents in continuing their education, the attitude of the student toward pregnancy, the possibility of marriage, and the degree to which students have established career plans and have been successful in their studies prior to the pregnancy. In this province the Department of Social Services provides counselling services for single mothers and guidelines have been developed by the Department of Education to assist the teenager make sound decisions and to assist school personnel address the problem appropriately. Among other suggestions, the school is urged to actively encourage pregnant teenagers to stay in school for as long as possible prior to delivery and return to school as soon as possible after the birth, to allow special arrangements for the writing of examinations and provide guidance regarding educational options. If the student has already dropped out of school and is unwilling to return, schools are encouraged to maintain contact, refer the former student to appropriate community agencies such as a social worker, public health nurse, or clergy, and ensure that the student is kept up-to-date with school work. However, many pregnant students may drop out of school before their pregnancy is revealed because they fear the school will not be supportive, or in fact be very negative about their condition. For this reason the Newfoundland Student Pregnancy Committee recommended that all students and their parents be made aware of the existence of support programs so that if a student does become pregnant she will be more likely to seek help.[102]

Child care is a serious impediment in the pursuit of educational programs for those who choose to keep their babies. In response to this need, the Conception Bay South Integrated Board developed a Teen Parent Support Program, which provides day care service in the school. Flexible scheduling allows the mothers to visit their babies during the day, and other students have an opportunity to learn about the rigorous demands of parenthood as part of a family living course. The students who have taken advantage of this program have all been successful in completing high school and continuing on to post-secondary studies. Both the mothers and their children have been given a chance to succeed. The money spent to operate the centre could be viewed as an investment, a more productive way of spending money than simply in income support through the Department of Social Services.

Given the personal and financial costs of not paying due attention to the problem of teenage pregnancy, it is important that schools become flexible, welcoming institutions, eager to seek ways to help these young people overcome obstacles to obtaining a high school graduation certificate. Prevention of pregnancy is even more important, and will "require the creation of an environment in which sex is not portrayed consistently and exclusively as trivial, an environment that can offset the profound effects of early deprivation, an environment that offers more attractive future options than early parenthood."[108]

## The School and Children of Divorce

Gary Jeffrey

The school-aged child who is "divorced" is typically placed in a very difficult situation. The experiences of a divorce, regardless of the child's age and background, are significantly correlated with potential personal and school difficulties. Most of these difficulties are neither appreciated nor addressed by the school.

This section seeks to outline the problems faced by children of divorce and to suggest ways in which the schools might appropriately respond to this situation.

### The Experience and Situation of the Divorced Child

The divorced child, regardless of his or her age, is often a child alone. In spite of having observed and been subjected to much family stress, the news of a separation is almost always a shock. When a marriage ends, the child's world often becomes a frightening and uncertain place.

Usually for a long period prior to the separation and for a period, often of about a year after the break, the parents are under too much personal stress to emotionally support and offer guidance and parenting to their child. A significant amount of this stress often involves problems with any or all of relocation, loss of child care assistance and very often a marked drop in financial resources. The stress may also involve the introduction of new parental partners.

Frequently, because the parent is him or herself lonely and in pain, the child is forced to become a "confidant" or "friend" of the parent. When this occurs, the child is made to share grief and information that cannot be understood. Sometimes the child is asked to give advice or to make choices that are far too difficult and complex. If the child is older, i.e., past eight to nine years, he or she may experience being left alone or may be charged with parenting younger siblings. Children, some of kindergarten age, are forced to experience a life space that is difficult even for an adult.

A child experiencing a divorce is often left without personal support. Our society, in spite of its increasing openness about divorce, still has difficulty coming to the support of divorced families. When a parent is ill or dies, friends and neighbours help the child grieve. When there is a marital break-up, most friends and neighbours feel uncomfortable and do not know what to do and hence leave the child alone, lonesome and confused.

While one would hope that grandparents, aunts and uncles might come to the support of the child, this is not always the case. In a sense, the child is "between" parental families. Being "between" means that the parental families are both often uncomfortable or, if willing to reach out, may take the side of one parent or the other. Rarely are relatives neutral and objective.

Without relatives and neighbours and in most cases also without support from other agencies like the church, counsellors or support groups, the child is at best able to turn to siblings or, if lucky, peers who are experiencing or have experienced similar stress. It is very common for a divorced school-aged child, regardless of age, to establish a relationship with another child in a similar situation.

A significant number of children being divorced, especially younger ones, experience strong fears as to their situation following the separation or the divorce. Some fear that they will be abandoned, some fear they will be put up for adoption and some fear they will be abducted or taken "away" from what is familiar and loved. Many younger children believe that they, perhaps because of some "bad act", caused the divorce.

Children, including those early in their adolescence, rarely anticipate a separation or a divorce in spite of there having usually been considerable tension in the home prior to the event. Children, perhaps because they so often seem themselves as "omnipotent" (i.e., as believing that bad things can happen to others but not to them) usually do not anticipate the family break-up. If there has been considerable stress and arguing, children may anticipate or fear separation, but even here the fantasy that it will be all right and that things will settle down is strong.

As if the fears, separation and often loss of more than family supports were not enough, many children experience difficulty sharing their situation with peers and with teachers. Insensitivity to their situation and sometimes fears of being ridiculed are experienced. Furthermore, curriculum and school activities are often are more attuned to the perhaps now "outdated" notion of a nuclear family. Some or all of these situations can cause further duress.

Divorce has been referred to as the 'death of a family'. The experience of both divorce and death are characterized by separation and loss. In a divorce, the experiences of children are quite different from those of their parents. In the event of the death of a parent there is a definite and final 'end' to the marriage relationship. For the child, the separation is not a clear-cut, and as a result the child continues to 'grieve' for the absent parent, often for a very long time. There is some evidence that even as an adult the divorced child still 'mourns' the loss of the intact family[104].

Not only does the divorced child have to deal with constant reminders of the 'lost' parent, he or she often also has to cope with parental confrontation and stress for quite a long period of time. The child is 'caught in the middle', feeling conflict and unsureness about his or her role in the marital break-up, and about where he or she fits in the new parental relationship.

Regardless of the seriousness of a child's reaction to the divorce, it is unquestionable that the stress, uncertainty and fears associated with it are "time expensive". A child has a finite amount of "time" to learn and think. The child experiencing what usually proceeds a separation or divorce, the event itself and the post-divorce difficulties is robbed of play and learning time. The child is, in other words, "robbed" or a part of what is deemed "normal childhood."

As Sweeney[105] points out, educators have long suspected that a child's learning environment is affected by the child's home environment. A child who is experiencing a drastic, and perhaps negative, change in his or her living conditions is highly likely to be very stressed and this is in turn likely to affect that child's behaviour and performance at school. There is a "vicious cycle" which can result. The child in response to home stress displays poor school behaviour and performance. The schools's response to these behaviours places additional stress on the child, thus creating even more intense negative behaviours, and a potentially even more troubled child.

It must be made clear that while parental stress may decrease progressively with time, following a divorce, there is not a parallel pattern for the child. The decrease in child stress often is much less. The stress is also usually present virtually for life.

While not all children display serious or "clinically significant problems" there are still many children seriously harmed or at least significantly affected by divorce. Strong concerns exist about the many children who are "not obviously damaged" and the many more who may be only apparent "survivors". There are many who are stressed badly by a divorce and many who are undeservingly suffering a poor "quality of life" for the same reason. It has been suggested in the literature that perhaps many of these children are like "time bombs" because there are "sleeper effects" associated with these divorces. Francke[106] points out that while we may hope that all will work out well for divorced children, the reality may be different. She suggests that:

> *... three out of four children of divorce will themselves get divorced. ...A child who continues to be caught in the cross-fire between hostile parents, who is abandoned either literally or emotionally by a parent, or who suffers from chronic inattention, never really comes out whole.*[107]

None of these children are likely to be "obviously" clinically or academically troubled at the time of the divorce.

To be fair, some research has found that the situation in the longer term may not be as bleak as is suggested above. In one study[108] it was found that after a decade few adolescents had memories of their past intact families or of family disruption even though they had shown considerable distress and fear at the time of the divorce. In spite of this, most of these young people "perceived that their lives would have been happier if they had grown up in an intact family".

We do not know how many children show severe problems directly attributable to divorce. Only one unsubstantiated estimate claiming that 26 percent would have school difficulties and that 29 percent would be still unable to adjust to their life situation after 5 years[109] was found. While many children may have problems, there is not enough good data to expect that all or even the majority of divorced children will have clinically serious or significant problems. It is possible expectations that such problems will occur may in some cases foster their occurrence, especially if held by overly concerned, already stressed parents.

Freeman[110] agrees with estimates by other authors[111] of the number of children likely to display problems needing therapeutic intervention following a divorce. She suggests 15-37 percent of divorced children will have problems. It is estimated that 40 percent of their case load, as social workers, was divorce related.[112]

The obvious and maybe even subtle effects of divorce are multifaceted. From birth, children need both parents and the loss of either will have a harmful effect on their psychological development[113]. After conducting several studies, it was concluded that divorce was the most stressful and complex mental health crisis facing children today[114]. All the effects of divorce are not known. Because "the jury is still out", we must assume that there are real "sub-clinical" risks, both short and long term. These effects may be so pervasive that children of divorce are a population at risk[115].

The view has been expressed that perhaps because of the stress associated with both the period prior to and after the marital break-up, many children are damaged or at least changed. While the effects of the situation may not directly manifest themselves in school related "behavioral or academic problems" or in "clinical" psychological or legally deviant behaviour, many of these children are "scarred" for the rest of their lives. Some are regarded as "time bombs" likely to go off in the future, the explosion being in the form of personal and/or marital problems[116].

### The National and Newfoundland Situation

According to Statistics Canada, the total number of Canadian divorces increased from 78,160 in 1986 to 86,985 in 1987, an increase of about 11%. The number of divorces in Newfoundland rose from 610 in 1986 to 1,002 in 1987, an increase of more than 60%.

The lower current divorce rate in Newfoundland can be attributed to factors such as the relatively recent divorce laws, limited access (due to geography) to institutions such as courts, the influence of the church and the presence of extended families. As the social, economic and demographic situation continues to change, there is every reason to believe that this rate is and will continue to climb.[117]

Though it is difficult to calculate just how many children are affected by marital separation, sociologists have estimated that 40 percent of all children growing up in Canada and the U.S. will be directly affected by marital dissolution[118]. The 1986 Census data indicated that there were 18,820 lone parent families in Newfoundland.

The Divorced Child in School

Much that is written on the effects of divorce is not based on carefully controlled and empirical research. While a small amount of empirical research has been carried out, often clinical reports and extrapolations from theory or other research are used as a basis for views. The extreme complexity of the divorce situation (i.e., because of the many family structures, ages of the divorced children, ages of divorcing parents, varying lengths and levels of pre-divorce stress, widely differing access to support services, differential incomes, differing cultural and educational backgrounds, etc.) make the gathering of current and quality data virtually impossible.

In spite of these difficulties, divorces occur and divorced children need to be understood and helped. Several authors have attempted to compile lists or collections of the "effects" of divorce. A comprehensive listing of effects and of intervention strategies was compiled[119]. More recently, Sweeney[120] compiled a list of frequently observed responses to divorce which have ben reported in the literature.

Sweeney[121] reviewed a comprehensive list of authors and simply listed their conclusions and views. Her list of the possible effects includes: aggressive behaviour, anger, anxiety, shame, decline in school performance, depression, diminished self-esteem, disobedience, eating problems, enuresis, inattentiveness, fears and phobias, gender identify conflict, guilt, hostility, hyperactivity, immaturity, irritability, loneliness, lying, "neediness", poor parental relationships, poor peer relations, poor sibling (over-control), pseudo-maturity, regression, school truancy/avoidance, sadness, sleep problems, somatic and psychosomatic symptoms, stealing, stress, suicidal tendencies, tantrums, tension, difficulties with concentration, underachievement and "whininess".

While this list does not help one predict how a given child might respond to a disruption in the family, it does offer the teacher or counsellor a list of "symptoms" or signs which can alert one to the possibility that a child is experiencing a some-related problem. Such behaviour might, in one sense, be viewed as "calls for help".

In her study of Newfoundland teachers' perceptions of the effects of the marital disruption on grade four children Sweeney[122] confirmed what other researchers in this field have concluded, namely that children of divorce and/or separation are different from children of intact families. Such children are a group with special needs.

In her study Sweeney[123] found that children who experienced a marital disruption were significantly different from their same-aged peers in several ways. Those from disrupted families were rated as having a higher anxiety level and as not feeling as good about themselves as peers. They were viewed as less confident or optimistic than children from intact families. They also were felt not be working to their potential and to have poorer work habits than their peers from intact homes. Children from intact homes were more likely to have passed every year, to be in the top 25% or middle of the class on the Canadian Test of Basic Skills and to be passing Reading and Mathematics than those from a disrupted home.

Based on a review of age-related effects of divorce discussed in the literature[124] the following composite picture is offered.

The predominant effect of parental separation/divorce observed in younger (primary) school age children is pervasive sadness and feelings of loss or deprivation. Children at this age may have feelings of guilt about the marital breakup and are likely to have unrealistic fears of being abandoned or sent away. These feelings are variously expressed through play or fantasy and as insatiable hunger and extreme possessiveness. Children may have difficulty sleeping and experience nightmares. There may be temporary periods of regressive behaviour such as separation anxiety, bed wetting, fussy food habits and infantile demands. Intense anger is often felt towards one parent, but is more likely to be directed towards teachers, friends or siblings in temper tantrum outbursts. The anger is tied to a sense of moral outrage and indignation towards the parent whom the child blames for the divorce. Children often experience conflicting and divided loyalties; petty stealing and lying maybe the response. Shame and embarrassment about what is happening in the family is often evident, and may be expressed when children lie to protect parents and camouflage hurt feelings.

Elementary aged children express many of these same feelings and responses seen in younger children, i.e., feelings of loss, rejection, fear, loneliness and sadness. However, the most prevalent feeling appears to be a conscious intense anger. This anger is more clearly directed towards the parent whom the child blames for the divorce and may be variously expressed through temper tantrums, "demandingness" or dictatorial attitudes. At this age, anger is used as a defense against feelings of shock and depression. (Interestingly, some children in the same age group may behave in a near opposite way. They may show increased compliance and decreased assertiveness.)

The accident rate for these children rises, and some may become suicidal. Shame and embarrassment with the consequent lying and covering up is also seen in this age group.

Somatic symptoms of different kings and degrees of severity, such as headaches and stomachaches, are increasingly seen at the higher ages. A decline in school performance with an accompanying deterioration in peer relationships is more common at this stage. There may be marked variance in children's behaviours, i.e., they may be depressed and quiet at home but act out at school. or may have difficulty concentrating in class and exhibit aggressive behaviour on the playground.

A marital breakup often exacerbates the normal developmental tasks of adolescents. Difficulties achieving independence, establishing identity, and problems with sexuality and self-esteem are reported by researchers. Adolescents feel the loss and pain intensely, and they often react with blatant anger or hostility. They may respond by withdrawing from the family, resulting in increased social activities and prolonged periods of staying away from home. Young adolescents, in particular, may perceive the marital breakup as personal abandonment and rejection by their parents. Severe loyalty conflicts are common. Entry into psychological maturity may be delayed or accelerated and may be demonstrated by excessive dependence upon parents or a heightened tendency to assume a parental role and act mature beyond one's years. They may become increasingly worried about finances, or their ability to negotiate their own intimate relationships. Acting out behaviours, involving sex, drugs and alcohol, may be evident. School refusal/truancy, delinquencies and academic problems are more prevalent at this stage.

To further complicate the picture, at each age level, sex differences are also often observed. While these cannot be reviewed in depth, gender differences tend to be more in the degree of the behaviour being displayed than in kind.

### Interventions and The Role of the School

As with the effects of divorce, there is limited empirical research and few empirically supported models for prevention or treatment of children's adjustment difficulties. This makes it difficult to draw firm conclusions about the efficacy of specific divorce adjustment groups on school aged children in general[125]. A prospective on current school based intervention approaches is offered.

Acknowledging the important role that teachers and the schools can play in addressing this very real, and increasingly prevalent need, Sweeney[126] comments that educators are in an excellent position to help the divorced child and to break the vicious cycle of school problems caused and confounded by home stress. She states that:

*"...armed with the knowledge of the most common reactions of divorce and/or separation on the*

> *particular age groups of children they are dealing with, educators can provide the support this particular group needs by first of all recognizing that the negative behaviours are not a personal attack on the teacher or indicators of a "bad" child. These children are displacing their anger and frustration at their home situation on the next most available adult in their lives, an adult with whom the child spends a significant amount of time. Knowing this, educators can address the specific cause of the behaviour rather than the result of the behaviour".*[127]

Sweeney[128] advocates the importance of creating a more positive school environment which acknowledges the stress these children are experiencing and provides academic as well as psychological support for them. She recommends, for example, the provision of positive, successful school experiences. These might involve helping the child to gain better control of his/her academic performance in order to alleviate the stress related to poor school performance.

Other authors have also offered suggestions for ways in which the school might help alleviate the stress of divorce.

A control group study evaluated a relatively long-term clinical treatment program for children of divorced families was carried out in a school setting.[129] The intervention consisted of a 16-week (35 minutes once a week) interpersonal problem solving group. The "Divorce Adjustment Group" was exposed to material specific to the process of divorce. The group role-played scenarios about visitation and custody conflicts. The experimental group exhibited significant decreases in somatic complaints and verbal complaints or refusals. This study, consistent with findings of other researchers, supported the efficacy of offering interpersonal problem solving in a relatively long-term co-operative peer support group.

Howard and Scherman[130] empirically assessed the effectiveness of a six-seek school based intervention program for children of divorce. One hundred and twenty-seven fourth and fifth graders were randomly assigned to experimental, control and comparison groups. Children's behaviour problems, attitudes and beliefs about divorce, self-concept, academic performance, and measures of group support were measured. Overall, program children's scores did not significantly exceed those of non-program children across most measures, even when time since divorce was considered. The most promising findings were that the children of divorce positively perceived the group experience, and were rated as exhibiting only mild problems after the group and a moderate degree of strengths and competencies.

Howard & Scherman[131] support the views of others in the field that "school is a natural setting for offering groups for children of divorce. One can reach a substantial number of children of divorce; there is a ready made peer group, and the children are in a familiar context".[132]

Studies which attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of school based intervention programs have indicated mixed results. This may be caused in part by conceptual and methodological problems inherent in the limited empirical studies being conducted and reported. Other difficulties are related to lack of a clear understanding of the factors associated with divorce which impact on children. For example, length of time since the divorce, presence of support systems, financial resources of the family, and contact with the non-custodial parent all have a direct influence on a child's adjustment to marital breakup[133]

The following suggestions were made to help professionals in working with children of divorce:[134]

1. In light of what is known about the long-term effects of divorce on children, support/intervention groups should be provided to children at all ages, preferably beginning as early as possible and continuing through high school.
2. Group leaders need to be educated about the different effects of divorce at different developmental stages so that these issues can be built into the group process.
3. Intervention programs need to be extended beyond the typical 6-8 week time span in order to be more effective and meet the needs of children.

4. Evaluation should be built into the program on an on-going basis.
5. Group activities should be motivating for the children (be related to their experiences) and be developmentally appropriate.
6. Parental support is an important part of any intervention program for children of divorce.

A four-part, school-based intervention program was designed aimed at educating significant adults regarding the possible child responses to the impact of parental separation and divorce.[135] The authors believe that while time limited, structured support groups for school-age children are useful, they do not adequately respond to the complex needs of children experiencing 'ruptured' families. By intervening on a variety of levels, and through active outreach into the community, more integrated support can be provided to the child and to his 'network'.

Advocating a 'systems' approach to intervention, McGann and Strauss state that *"...the school is the logical place to remobilize the support network toward balance of the child's ecological system"*. The school fulfils this role because (1) it is the major realm of activity for the school-aged child, "a second home" and a logical place to turn for support, (2) school personnel have the opportunity to work with children very early on when prevention rather than remediation is possible, (3) since all children come to school, the school is a part of the child's naturally occurring network. "By dealing with these issues within the school rather than in a Child Guidance Clinic or other mental health setting, there is validation of the fact that what may appear as "crazy" behaviour is in fact not pathological, but rather an appropriate response to the reality of his experience. At the same time, contact with familiar people in a familiar setting adds reassurance of continuity when the child is experiencing so many disruptions".[136]

The program described by McGann and Strauss[137] is made up of teacher workshops, PTA sponsored presentations, classroom meetings and time-limited structured groups for children and parents of divorce. The authors provide a description of the format and content of each component, including suggestions for the recruitment and training of volunteer and professional resource people and specific suggestions regarding the content to be used in each of the workshops and interventions.

Freeman[138], in writing about the research concerning children's experience of family 'transitions' states that *"the complexity and diversity inherent in a family's experience of divorce normally overrides the usefulness of a single or brief interventions"*. She calls for a wider range of services and education that *"takes into account the child, the parent, and the context in which they live"*.[139]

Because there clearly are differences in the abilities of families to cope with changes in family structure, Freeman[140] states that the Family Service Association of Metropolitan Toronto offers a variety of programs. These involve a wide range of specialized services to the community which includes educational programs and counselling services. One section offers the "Transitions Program" made up of several activities including pre-separation consultations, groups for resident and non-custodial parents, short-term family based counselling (focusing on child adjustment), and short duration educational programs geared to particular needs and situations, mediation access and therapeutic and educational programs for blending families.

In reviewing the literature it was found that groups are viewed as a preferred mode of intervention for children from divorcing families. These enable young people to share their often similar experiences and build a support system in their immediate environment[141]. Programs featuring multi-faceted (i.e., system-based as contrasted to just "in-school) interventions" are also viewed as having the greatest potential impact.

Freeman[142] stress the importance of early intervention when there is a separation or divorce. They feel that such interventions have "a long-term preventive effect".[143]

Clinicians are becoming increasingly aware of the enduring and potentially damaging consequences of family break-up on the children's social and emotional development. The nature of children's adjustment to divorce depends on the quality and amount of 'support' that is available in and to the family during this difficult transition period. Children develop and are socialized within the context of home, community and society. It is now recognized that the special needs of divorced children can be best addressed within this broader context. Children's ability to cope with and successfully adjust to changes in family structure are thus affected by the response of social institutions like the school to divorcing families.

### Addressing the Problem

The role of the school in society appears to be changing. Schools are less often viewed as primarily academic institutions and are increasingly being called upon to take an ever larger responsibility for the social and emotional development of children. It is in such a context that the role of the school in regard to the needs of divorced children becomes more focal. When families fail and children suffer or are damaged and when there is no other agency in place to address this situation, it is not surprising that the school is looked to as a source of help.

To ease the stress and problems experienced by many divorced children, there are several ways in which the educational system might respond. Possible changes or adjustments might include:

1. Increased teacher awareness of the potential impact of divorce and separation on children. This would potentially help teachers to be more understanding and supportive of the needs of divorced children for a neutral, understanding and caring adult.
2. Adjustments to curriculum content so as to allow the divorced child and his or her peers to better realize that their family situation is "normal". Activities such as using a genogram to let the children visualize family structures would help children feel better about themselves and their family situations. Discussions of alternative family structures would legitimize their experiences and reaffirm family connections.
3. Increased access to counsellors or support giving personnel is also needed, especially for children displaying signs of divorce related stress. Groups are especially effective in the school context.
4. Increased efforts to encourage parents to inform the school of a separation or divorce. Such efforts by the school along with providing information to parents about school-based support services could help ease the stress experienced by divorced children.
5. Increased or newly initiated efforts by the school, ideally in co-operation with other community agencies, to offer support groups for both youth and parents, perhaps along the lines of those proposed by Howard and Scherman.[144] Schools are in a position to offer support to parents as well as young people through PTA meetings focusing on divorce, and even by offering the opportunity for divorced or separated parents to get together to discuss their children's needs. When school based programs are linked with other community services designed to support divorcing families, both the parents and the children are better served.
6. Stress need for co-operation between school staff and other appropriate agencies.

## Child Sexual Abuse

Working Unit on Child Sexual Abuse
Community Services Council

> *"At sometime during their lives, about one in two females and one in three males have been victims of one or more unwanted sexual acts."*[145]
>
> *"About one in four assailants is a family member or a person in a position of trust; about half are friends or acquaintances; and about one in six is a stranger."*[146]
>
> *"Of the sexual assaults committed against children documented in the national surveys, the identities of a majority of the assailants were known...The results clearly show that the main need of sexually abused children is for adequate protection from persons whom they already know and may trust."*[147]

Child Abuse: Newfoundland and Labrador Reported Cases of Child Abuse

| | 1986-87 | 1987-88 | 1988-89 | 1989-90 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Physical | 77 | 188 | 307 | 442 |
| Emotional | 6 | 51 | 23 | 126 |
| Sexual | 316 | 414 | 555 | 694 |
| TOTAL REPORTED CASES | 399 | 653 | 885 | 1,262 |
| TOTAL REPORTED SEXUAL ABUSE | 316 | 414 | 555 | 694[148] |

### The Need for a Universal Policy and Protocol

This province does not have a universal policy or protocol to guide school boards in dealing with a disclosure of abuse. Some school boards in this province don't even have a policy on child abuse. Since there is no mechanism in place to ensure that the policies that do exist are consistent with each other, procedures differ dramatically from school board to school board.

Teachers who hear disclosures are confused by the mixed messages they receive from their boards, the Department of Education, the Department of Social Services and the media. If a teacher were to transfer from one school board to another, he/she would have to learn whether this new board has a policy with regard to abuse and if so, how that policy differs from the previous board policy. Parents, children and school staff are often confused because there is no uniform policy adhered to by all school boards. This is a barrier to the equitable delivery of a service.

A study of the policies and procedures of nineteen school boards disclosed many inconsistencies. Some school boards have provided their teachers with detailed and insightful explanations of neglect, and emotional, physical and sexual abuse to help them understand the problems. In other parts of the province, the teachers may have no experience in dealing with abuse and no training or guidelines to assist them in detecting the indicators that could alert them to a child in need.

Abuse of children is a reality that crosses all social, religious and economic boundaries. We know that many children are being abused in our province and the greatest percentage of that abuse takes place within the family. When children's homes are not a safe place, they will frequently turn to a trusted teacher to disclose the pain they are suffering. Some boards are making great efforts to create safe places for those children in their schools by ensuring that the needs of the child in crisis form the basis of and are reflected in their policies.

The child who is making a disclosure of abuse needs validation, reassurance, empathy and understanding. The child has a right to know what to expect and to have all the procedures explained to her/him.

Boards may not know the importance of appropriate responses. In almost half of the policies we looked at, no suggestions about how to proceed are given. Much of the literature on child abuse suggests that healing begins at the moment of disclosure so teachers need guidance on how to respond, in order to spare the child further trauma.

### Response

A disclosure should be acted on immediately and appropriately so that the child is not placed under any additional stress or in any more danger. To delay action violates the child's rights and hinders the investigation.

Some policies remind teachers that their responsibility to report this information is not discharged by delegating the responsibility to someone else and stress that the report should be made immediately to Social Services. This is the correct advice because the swift response is validating to the child, protects his/her safety and gets the Child Protection investigation started as soon as possible.

Some boards have policies that stall this process. Only a few boards free the teacher to call Child Protection immediately after hearing the disclosure without first informing the principal. We read eight policies that instruct the teacher to pass the responsibility for reporting the disclosure on to someone else, either the principal, guidance counsellor, or board psychologist. This is not in the child's best interest and contradicts the Child Welfare Act, Section 49.

Some boards instruct teachers to contact Social Services directly if they feel appropriate action has not been initiated within a reasonable period, but this "reasonable period" is not defined. No delay is reasonable.

Some instructions direct that if the principal has not made the referral within seventy-two hours, the teacher should inform the superintendent. In that instance, the child may remain in the abusive situation for those three days. The child's disclosure instead of securing a safe haven, many in fact have placed him/her in heightened danger. The child (or someone else who has knowledge of the disclosure) may tell the abuser who is free to take action against the child before child protection workers are aware of the situation. This would place the child in grave danger.

In some schools, the principal is seen as the disciplinarian, being the one to whom the children are sent when they have done something wrong. Telling the principal could cause the child a lot of anxiety and may put pressure on him/her to retract the story. Delaying reporting to Social Services until the principal can be located and told, may lead to a child being sent home to a dangerous situation.

### Validation

Another policy tells teachers, **under normal circumstances**, to use the principal and/or guidance counsellor in an **advisory capacity**. They are instructed; **"Whoever believes the child is being abused**, must initiate the report even in the face of disagreement or opposition." This implies discussion on the validity of the child's story and is a vastly different position from the recommended one which is "BELIEVE THE CHILD". New teachers, not in a position of authority, may not feel comfortable contradicting the opinion of their senior colleagues. If all teachers and boards followed the Child Welfare Act, all dangerous delays would be eliminated.

We accept the importance of informing the school administration of any call to Child Protection, but his can be accomplished after Social Services are called and need not involve passing on all the details. One board policy states, "Only pertinent information directly impacting on the child's educational well-being needs to be communicated". Because the child chose to confide in the teacher and not the principal, the counsellor or the psychologist, that choice must be respect, and only the teacher, the social worker and the police need to know all the details.

Several policies clearly state "DO NOT INVESTIGATE" but others use words such as "review", "discussion", and "consultation". Is this, in effect, an internal investigation? Our society is just now coming to an understanding of what constitutes abusive behaviour, and the evidence is clear that only those trained to do investigations be involved immediately after a disclosure.

Some boards instruct personnel to investigate internally. The horror of these school board policies is that they deny validation of the child's truth and they leave the child at this critical point vulnerable to further abuse. As the days pass with no apparent action resulting from his/her disclosure, the child would certainly not feel believed and would probably feel abandoned. An internal investigation would be particularly dangerous if the alleged abuser is a school board employee.

The teacher is also in a very stressful situation because after hearing the disclosure and passing on the information, he/she has no assurance that any protective action is being taken. Some board policies recognize that the teacher has an important rôle to play and they encourage their teachers to insure that appropriate action has been initiated.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality must be protected. Several boards recognize this and have put guidelines in place, and include detailed instructions on how to ensure it. Children have a right to confidentiality and must be given assurance that their privacy is respected.

There are some school board policies which are innovative. Two boards see it as their responsibility to support the child and the family after the disclosure and offer help accessing services. Several include a policy on abuse by employees. Two have supports in place for the employee, who is the alleged offender, and his/her family. Some boards policies include specific information on abuse by students, while others given guidance in the form of an appendix on legal consent, a description of sexual exploitation and excerpts from the Young Offenders Act. In those boards, teachers are instructed to inform students sixteen and over that they have the right to lay charges.

Many policies remind teachers that it is their responsibility to increase their awareness and knowledge of the nature and identification of child abuse. A few instruct the principal to review the policy with staff annually. Some have instituted prevention programs.

Co-ordination

There is a desperate need for interdisciplinary co-operation and co-ordination. All of us must co-operate to protect our children. The responsibility for dealing with abuse does not belong to any one agency or professional discipline. School personnel responding to a disclosure of chid abuse must work with police, social workers, and health care professionals. Guidelines used by school personnel in responding to a disclosure of child abuse should be co-ordinated with the guidelines used by the other disciplines.

Unfortunately, the policies are not co-ordinated and this has caused problems. Despite the clear statement of the Child Welfare Act, confusion remains among school personnel about their responsibility to report suspected abuse. Some school boards continue to have policies that contradict the interpretation of the Act accepted by the Department of Social Services.

It is the directness and simplicity of the Child Welfare Act that best protects the child. When the school boards and the social workers have a different interpretation of the same law, they wind up mistrusting each other. In the midst of this, the child loses all faith that he or she has been heard or will be protected.

Letters were sent to the Ministers of Education, Justice, and Social Services by the Working Group on Child Sexual Abuse, discussing this issue and requesting interdepartmental action.

A co-ordinated approach must be developed to encourage agencies to develop joint protocols and share information. Each person involved should know what their responsibilities are and how they can make the other professionals' jobs easier. They would create an atmosphere of co-operation in the protection of children. Policies developed without consultation and co-ordination between agencies are a barrier to the effective delivery of services.

### Lack of Co-ordinated Training

Many teachers and guidance counsellors have received in-service on the issue of child sexual abuse. Few have received that training in the company of the other professionals who are also involved with child abuse, such as police, Department of Social Services, public health, etc. It is imperative that all have the same understanding of the issues and that each understands the inter-relationship of their various roles.

The rolè of the teacher is unique in that a child often feels more comfortable talking to the teacher who is familiar, rather than to a social worker who is a stranger. This places the teacher in the position of having to guard against acting in a manner in which might jeopardize the evidence to be gathered by the police or social workers.

School personnel form a very valuable part of the child's life, this makes it doubly necessary that all who are involved are aware of the policies and limitation of the various professions are trained to follow co-ordinated protocols. The lack of co-ordinated, ongoing training is a barrier to the proper handling of a case by all the involved professionals and may do a disservice to the child.

### The Need for a Prevention Program

There is no way to completely protect our children from being abused. The responsibility to end the violence lies with the abuser. We recognize, however, that society has a responsibility to help change social attitudes that promote or condone violence. Rix Rogers, special Advisor to the Minister of Health and Welfare on Child Sexual Abuse has recommended:

> *"That Health and Welfare Canada continue to work with the Council of Ministers of Education and the national education associations in developing long-range programs of values education, including those related to issues of patriarchy and hierarchy, domestic violence and sexual abuse."*[149]

Unfortunately, not all schools have access to a prevention program and there is no uniform program for those who do. There is no consistency. There are complaints that some programs place too much responsibility on the child for stopping the abuse, while others stress danger from strangers, even though it is well known that children are much more likely to be abused by known and trusted caregivers. All prevention programs should be balanced with programs that encourage a healthy understanding of human sexuality.

There is more to a good prevention program than having a specific grade targeted for a week-long unit on personal safety. All too often this makes the subject of personal safety and child abuse appear to be "taken care of" in one block. Unfortunately, the problem of trying to prevent abuse against children is more complex than it first appears.

The Winter Commission "...received much comment to the effect that the education facilities of the Archdiocese - primary, secondary and adult - have not adequately addressed the need to design and implement curricula and teaching strategies that address the problems of violence, male domination and human exploitation in general, which are so deeply ingrained in our culture and in the Church community."[150]

With harmful attitudes so deeply imbedded in our culture, we will need more than one short program to adequately protect a child. Like the rest of society, teachers and other school personnel have been affected by those values. We all need to receive help to change attitudes and to work to instill attitudes that foster non-violence in our communities. The Winter Commission reports that:

> *...the denominational educational experience, while providing in many cases an important experience of community, may also have tended to compound paternalistic and patriarchal attitudes.*[151]

Society must address these complex problems. The school system must support the importance of children developing a healthy self-image. Families and schools must give children permission to question adults when they don't understand or don't feel comfortable. Children need not feel that they must be passive or submissive, or that happiness and success are contingent on extreme competitiveness or aggressiveness.

> *"The media must begin to accept responsibility for the material it presents. It must start to monitor itself. Aggression is almost a constant feature of North American television, film, rock music, cartoons, and comics. Worse, violence is often fused with sexuality and contempt for women. When children are inundated with these messages day after day, their attitudes are moulded in a manner that makes them more vulnerable to the extended lies of pornography. If we are to create a more peaceful, gentle society, violence must be seen as destructive, not as a successful solution to problems."*[152]

All adults have to take responsibility for their own actions so that children can learn from them. It is the responsibility of parents, the education system and society to see that the children are protected by helping create a non-abusive environment in the home, school and community. Developing a sound prevention program appears the best way to break the cycle of abuse and help children to grow into well-adjusted adults and parents.

Prevention programs within schools should be sequential and age-appropriate from kindergarten through high school. Various aspects of the prevention program could be included in appropriate curriculum areas. AT present, it is left to the teacher's discretion whether the topic of child abuse will be part of the grade nine Adolescence and Sexuality course, yet we know that one third of all sexual abuse is committed by adolescents. On the other hand, it is incorporated into the level I religion course. While we do not dispute the validity of this topic in the high school program, it would be far more effective to have **introduced** the topic much earlier, and expanded discussion at appropriate levels.

The topic of child development may be briefly touched upon in the junior high program. "Family studies" courses in the senior high schools are elective.s This is unfortunate, as this may be the only information available to students about parenting other than observations made in the home, the community and the media. Child abuse and family violence tend to be cyclical. Negative observations and experiences of abuse perpetuate this problem. If some of these courses were mandatory, a great number of teenagers could learn valuable skills, and break the cycle.

## Conclusion

Lack of a co-ordinated universal response policy to child sexual abuse puts the children of this province at risk. Unclear policies and inadequate training place all teachers and school personnel in a confusing and vulnerable position. This province needs a good comprehensive prevention program that teaches students to relate to others in a non-abusive way. Prevention programs should be integrated into many subject areas at every grade level. Attitudes that foster non-violence and non-sexist thinking should be modelled by all adults in the school setting. We believe the situation is urgent and requires immediate action.[153] [154] [155]

A positive indication of progress in this area is the provincial government's recent decision to direct those in whom children have disclosed abuse to report the allegation immediately.

## Addressing the Problem

The following suggestions are proposed:

1. That the Department of Education, in co-operation with other community agencies, develop a

universal policy for dealing with disclosures of child abuse.

2. That the Department of Education develop a more co-ordinated approach to dealing with child abuse so that parents, children, school personnel and other professionals know what everyone's rights and responsibilities are.
3. That the Department of Education, in co-operation with other agencies, develop inter-agency training programs and ensure that teachers, guidance counsellors, and administrative staff take part in those training programs.
4. That the Department of Education, in consultation with parents and other community groups, develop a comprehensive sequential and age-appropriate prevention program that is mandatory for students from kindergarten to high school.

## Early Childhood Intervention

Trudy Pound-Curtis

This study was aimed at the collection of background data from which would flow recommendations to find creative ways to compensate for the wide range in readiness of young children entering school. The specific task of the study was to explore the need, feasibility and effectiveness of early intervention initiatives, to make recommendations about models which would be appropriate to use guide potential pilot projects, and to relate likely implications of such recommendations.

### Identifying the Problem

It is recognized that students arrive at Kindergarten having had widely varying pre-school experiences which prepare them to different degrees to profit from instruction, yet all children are offered the same curriculum. Those who have had inadequate exposure to books, in particular, are at risk of falling behind those who have had more enriched backgrounds even before they reach the end of their first year in school. The teachers around the province experience vast differences in the level of preparedness of the children that enter kindergarten.

### Establishing the Need for Intervention

Children are a nation's most valuable resource. They represent the future of a country and their emotional well being, physical and development growth and education must be our highest priority.

> "Fifty percent of all the factors that determine intellectual functioning are formulated by the age of four and we would expect the variation in the environment to have relatively little effect on the I.Q. after the age of eight, but we would expect the greatest effect between the ages of about one and five." (Bloom 1968)

Research has proven that the early childhood years represent the most critical period of human development for a child. The last 30 years has seen significant social and economic change in the family. No longer does the traditional family unit exist where the mother is at home with the children and the father in the workplace. Family forms where there are one parent, childless couples and couples with children where both parents are employed are much more common. Additionally, significant economic shifts have resulted in an increased number of families in which both parents must work.

Research has identified impoverished or disadvantaged families as "high risk" populations. These families are more likely to be troubled by problems like physical and/or sexual abuse, neglect, illness or drug abuse. They are also the families whose children are likely to come to the attention of child protection services (Garbarino and Vondra, 1983; Miller and Whittaker, 1988) Garbarino and Vondra (1983) point out that the demographic and socioeconomic profiles of children at risk for maltreatment are strikingly similar to the profiles of poor, young, single parents and their children. Both are key targets for intervention.

Lack of education is also part of the socioeconomic and demographic profile of children and families "at risk" (Garbarino and Vondra, 1983; Halpern, 1988; Honig, 1989) Risk can be related to various factors both internal and external to families and individuals. Honig (1989) outlines four major groups for risk factors:

1. socio, cultural and demographic factors such as poverty, lack of education or housing;
2. biomedical risks that may be related to nutritional deficits or drug abuse;
3. personal-social factors revealed in parental behaviours and attitudes, such as harsh discipline style or a lack of parent child bonding;
4. family history characteristics; such as, employment or father absence and the lack of spousal support.

She notes that "risk factors can intersect and can increase poor outcomes. Yet where there are buffering or support elements present, risk factors are ameliorated." (p.4)

Schweinhart (1985) of the High Scope Research Foundation reported on the outcomes of poverty for children and the related poverty cycle. In this cycle, poverty in childhood often leads to failure in schools and then to socioeconomic failure and poverty in adulthood. He cited research indicating that school performance has been shown to be directly linked to socioeconomic status. He offered the following three points to summarize his review of the research:

1. Disadvantaged students score substantially lower on test scores than advantaged students, and have a higher dropout rate.
2. The number of years of schooling is strong correlated with poverty status. The more years of school adults have completed, the less likely they are to be living in poverty.
3. Poverty and scholastic failure are associated with juvenile delinquency, crime and high rates of teenage pregnancy.

He sees early childhood as "a time of life when, at least for some, the stream of poverty and scholastic failure can be diverted to a more successful course." (p. 14) Compensatory education and support services for families are aimed at assisting and preparing children and their parents to go beyond their present life circumstances and "find their way out of poverty."

### Benefits of Early Intervention

No difficulty exists in justifying the need for existence of early childhood intervention programs in Newfoundland. We are a Province who researchers would identify as having the characteristics of an "at risk" population. Newfoundland must set as a priority the need to alter the course for our future generation. "The pre-school phase of a child's life is critically formative with regard to eventual performance in Kindergarten to Grade 12 schooling and to the ultimate quality of life, that child will enjoy as an adult. The quality of early childhood experiences is a key determinant of a child's intellectual development, social skills and self-esteem. Increasingly, many of these experiences are taking place in day-care centres and other out-of-family settings in addition to the family home."[156] Longitudinal studies of child development and education have clearly demonstrated the importance of quality developmental experiences during the first formative years. While this is true for all children, the benefits of effective screening and quality early intervention are particularly significant for disadvantaged children. These facts give rise to a growing concern over the need to ensure quality, early child-care experiences in Canada.

A study in Ypsilanti, Michigan, followed the school and young adult lives of a group of "disadvantaged" children from the time they were three or four until they were 19. These children were exposed to quality pre-school programs and the following results were noted:

1. Children who participated in pre-school obtained significantly higher scores on measures of cognitive ability than control-group children. This superior functioning disappeared by third grade.
2. Children who participated received significantly higher scores on achievement tests in elementary school than control-group children. The difference continued up to and including 8th grade. (Last year followed)
3. Children who participated received better ratings by elementary school teachers in academic, emotional and social development.

Intervention Initiatives in Other Jurisdictions

United States. Since the 1960s the United States has been very active in the field of early childhood "Head Start" programs designed to provide comprehensive development services for pre-school children from low-income families and junior kindergarten designed for four year olds began springing up all over the country. Today, junior kindergarten and/or head start programs are available in all but four states.

President Bush, stating that by the year 2000 all children in the United States will start school ready to learn, has established the following federal objectives for education:

- All disadvantaged and disabled children will have access to high quality and developmentally appropriate pre-school programs that help prepare kids for school.
- Every parent will be a child's first teacher and devote time each day helping his/her child learn, parents will have access to the training and support they need.
- Children will receive the nutrition and health care needed to arrive at school with health minds and bodies and the number of low birth weight babies will be significantly reduced through prenatal health systems.

Significant amounts of federal and state funds are being injected to fund a variety of formal programs to meet the needs of both federal and individual states. Some of these programs are:

- Head Start
- Even Start
- Subsidized Day Care
- Chapter 1 migrant education program
- Smart Start
- Act for Better Child Care (ABC)
- Tax Credit proposals
- Hawkins Bill

President Bush is convinced that the investment in early childhood programs is worth the investment. To quote George Bush: (1988)

> "Every dollar spent on pre-school yields as much as a sevenfold return . . . No everyone can have a caring parent, but everyone should have a teacher who cares." (Phi Delta Kappan, P. 116)

Canada. While the United States has been developing Junior Kindergarten for their four year olds and Head Start Programs for "at risk" children, Canada is still struggling with implementation of Kindergarten programs for their five year olds. As of 1991, one Province has still not established a Kindergarten Program. Ontario is making progress in the implementation of a junior kindergarten program.

With education being a Provincial responsibility, the existence and success of compensatory education initiatives for "at risk" children has been left to the Provinces. More specifically, responsibility has been left to individual school districts who develop programs where funding and identified needs can be matched. Through Departments of Social Services, provinces have been making strides in the development of regulations and licensing requirements for public day cares. Initiatives other than public day cares have for the most part been developed at community levels by volunteers.

Newfoundland. Educators are identifying children as they enter the school system as the major focus of their attention. Overwhelming research evidence has proven that the early childhood years represent the most critical period of human development for a child.

Even with this impetus, priority for the importance of these experiences has not been formally recognized by the Department of Education. The Department of Education has created an early childhood consultant position which restricts its focus on a half time basis to monitoring the curriculum content in the 163 established licensed day centres in the Province. No focus has been given to ensure that all children have reached an appropriate level of preparedness when they enter school. Some school boards throughout the province, with the assistance of public Health Nurses, have children go through a screening process to assess their readiness for school. This is not a compulsory requirement and exists ad hoc throughout the province.

Despite the lack of provincial recognition for the need for early childhood intervention initiatives for this province formal and informal programs do exist. As there is no co-ordination body, a complete listing does not exist. The initiatives that do exist tend to be local initiatives crested largely due to the response of motivated individuals who have identified critical problems in largely economically depressed ares such as Peterview, Bell Island, Belleoram and Shea Heights.

In these areas funding for programs has been obtained by scraping funds from such sources as subsidies from the Provincial Department of Social Services, Federal job creation programs, and start-up grants form The Secretary of State, or Provincial Rural Development Grants. At times, school boards will allocate small amounts of funding from their existing strained budgets to support these initiatives.

The major problem with this type of funding is that the funding is not a permanent commitment and programs are placed in jeopardy from year to year.

Inventory of Intervention Programs Already Existing in the Province (Not all Inclusive)

**Port aux Basques**

New Mothers Program. A joint project by the local hospital and the school board. All new mothers are provided with material called babies and books to encourage parents to read to children.

Pre-School Play Group. Staffed by parents volunteers, the program emphasizes socialization, oral language development, and exposure to children's books. The play group meets twice a week for one and one-half hours.

In-Service to Pre-School Parents. Parents in the community are informed of the many activities they can do at home to stimulate their children before they come to school. The three-hour in-service was videotaped, and is available to parents of newborns.

Pre-School Library. Six hundred books available to parents to borrow on a weekly basis. This helps ensure they are in the home, and that parents read to their children at an early age.

**St. Joseph's Elementary, Carbonear**

Pre-School Program. Pre-Kindergarten program designed to teach parents how to read a book, how to keep children interested, how to get children to predict and become active participants in the reading process. Develop positive attitudes toward reading.

**Read Canada, Native Friendship Centre**

Designed for "at risk" children to learn to read. They focus on children aged 1 - 3.

**Happy Valley, Goose Bay**

Kindergarten Readiness Program. Program lasting 8 - 10 weeks, designed to offer the disadvantaged child with an enriched stimulating environment, which encourages language, socialization and creativity and opens the door to the delight of books and stories.

**Bell Island**

Day Care - Head Start. Established in response to a critical problem having to do with preparedness for Kindergarten in the community. Economically depressed community with high level of unemployment and social assistance. Need established for 60 - 70 children, however, the program funding could only accommodate 40 children in a half day program. Children identified with greatest needs are accommodated.

**Peterview, Bishop's Falls, Windsor**

Day Care - Head Start. Established in response to a critical problem having to do with preparedness for Kindergarten in the community. High drop-out rates and extremely low levels of literacy in a community with high levels of literacy in a community with high levels of dependency on social assistance. Children identified with greatest needs are accommodated.

**Belleoram**

Pre-School Program. Established in response to a critical problem having to do with preparedness for Kindergarten in the community. Poor speech development, high drop-out rates.

**Shea Heights**

Pre-School Program - St. John Bosco. Established in response to a critical problem with preparedness for Kindergarten in the community. Program accommodates 16 children for a half day program.

**St. John's**

Head Start Program - Day Break Parent-Child Centre. Established in 1972 as a Head Start and family support centre. The program is designed for special needs children. The special needs may be inadequate stimulation, physical disabilities, speech and language delay, or behaviourial and emotional delays, which are commonly referred to as behaviour problems. The program caters to 65 pre-school aged children and their families. Daybreak could be referred to as an expanded program or social program centre.

**Rural Newfoundland**

SORT. Significant Others are Reading Teachers is an early childhood reading intervention program for pre-school children. SORT is primarily designed to encourage rural pre-school children and their Significant Others to engage in reading as an everyday practice. It aims to provide what is necessary for these young children to be successful readers. This program is just completed the development stage and is in the process of being implemented throughout the Province.

**Other Intervention Initiatives**

Through the Province most school boards are attempting to bridge the gap for students entering kindergarten through orientation sessions for children who will be attending school in the upcoming year, parent education meetings and other informal programs.

### Potential Models for Delivery

Formal intervention programs are extremely expensive and with current economic conditions it is not likely that large scale programs, even with the need established, will be resourced. Other countries and provinces are spending significant dollars annually to support their intervention programs while our province is struggling to fund adequate primary, elementary and secondary programs.

The lack of adequate resources does not mean though, that creative methods cannot be employed to develop effective intervention programs. A significant number of effective programs currently exist in Newfoundland that could be expanded, as well as the possibility of additional programs that could be developed and implemented across the Province.

The proposed new model for the delivery of primary, elementary and secondary education in the Province focuses on increasing the participation and governance at a local level. Through local governing councils, specialized primary teachers and with general direction from the Department of Education, parent groups could become active participants in developing a myriad of intervention programs that would focus on the enrichment of early childhood experiences and assisting all parents in developing good parenting skills.

### Addressing the Problem

1. The Department of Education should develop an entry level standard for all categories of children entering the school system. The standard should articulate the skills, social and other that children should master in order to enter the system.
2. With the assistance of the Department of Health, all children who have reached the three year old range should be required to be tested to assist parents in identifying children who are not progressing with their age appropriate skills. This screening process would be used in conjunction with an early registration program for schools and assist the school in targeting children who would be suited for intervention assistance.
3. With the assistance of the Department of Social Services, pockets of the Province where high concentration of "at risk" children reside should be identified for subsidized intervention programs. This could encourage local entrepreneurship within communities.
4. At the regional level responsibility should be given to co-ordinate and encourage out reach or intervention programs to link children with the school at an earlier age. The responsibility for the delivery of these programs should be achieved at the school/community level through the Local Governing Councils.
5. School boards should make available on a strict cost recovery basis excess space in schools to encourage the operation of formal or informal pre-school programs.
6. Through School Councils, parents should be encouraged to become proactive in developing intervention programs for families in their communities. These intervention programs could include such programs as:
   a. New Mothers Education Programs
   b. Prenatal and Family Nutrition
   c. Book Resource Centres
   d. Toy Exchanges
   e. Parenting Skills Development
   f. Book Reading Programs
   g. Implementation of the SORT Program
   h. Development of Reading Skills for Families

   The program should be designed to solve the problem and not treat the symptoms. This would encourage the programs to concentrate on improving parenting skills using a family centred approach as opposed to a child centred one.

### The Cost of Intervention

We live in a society which provides social safety nets. We recognize the need for government sponsored social services. Nowhere in the educational literature can be found advocacy of policy which would ignore the needs of the disadvantaged. However, instituting programs whose goal it is to eliminate social and economic barriers to educational achievement seems to require inordinate amounts of persuasion, not because of their value but because of the cost.

A difficult political problem for any government is that the benefits of new educational reform measures are not experienced by the administration which initiated them. Their cost appears on the cost side of the balance sheet only. Ultimately programs which enhance educational outputs save governments a great deal of money, and this still is arguably the least valuable result of them.

Mary McLellan, in discussing the schools' need to address the needs of pregnant teenagers, said, "Compensatory education programs that can help at risk teens succeed in school may be expensive, but every child who avoids repeating a grade because of such a program saves the school system $3000."[157] Amounts are certain to vary with particular jurisdictions, but the point remains: inaction costs money too.

Lisbeth Schorr[158] concluded, following an extensive investigation of intervention programs in the United States, that services for children and families in poverty, where done in a first class fashion, succeed beyond one's wildest dreams, but that inadequately funded programs end up spending money with no appreciable results.[159]

However, even the short term costs of childhood poverty are significant. Firstly, there are direct health costs associated with the higher rate of illness caused by poor nutrition. The cost of caring for low birth weight babies is particularly high. Secondly, remedial and special education services are expensive, and are required more by poor children. As previously noted, poor children are more likely to suffer from poor health and a concomitant high absentee rate, leading to poor school performance. The specialist and small class services required for remedial action are expensive. Thirdly, a problem related indirectly to education, is that between 54 and 75 percent of Canadian children who are in the care of the child welfare system come from poor families, costing a minimum of $16,000 per child per year.[160]

In the realm of education, governments, of necessity, must think beyond short term gains: education is itself a long-term enterprise. A great deal of time, energy and expertise is expended on children before these efforts bear fruit. In a 1987 report the Committee for Economic Development in the United States stated that improving the prospects for disadvantaged children is not an expense but an excellent investment, one that can be postponed only at much greater cost to society.[161] In addressing the issue of investing in early childhood programs for disadvantaged children, which require the longest amount of time to see results, the Committee stated that these programs were "an extraordinary economic buy....It is hard to imagine a higher yield for a dollar of investment than in pre-school programs for at-risk children." A study conducted of "The Perry Preschool Project" followed a group of 123 poor Black children who had participated in preschool programs and compared them, at age 19, to a group of children from the same background who were not enrolled in preschool education. The main conclusion reached was that for every $1000 invested in a year of preschool education, at least $4000 is returned to society in reduced costs for education and legal processing for delinquent behaviour, and increased lifetime earnings for participants. Particular findings included the following:

- 67 percent of the preschool groups were high school graduates compared with 49 percent of the control group
- 59 percent were employed, compared with 32 percent of the others
- 31 percent of the preschool group had even been arrested or detained, compared with 51 percent of the others
- the teenage pregnancy rate was less than half as great for the preschool group
- on a test of functional competence, 61 percent of the pre-school group scored at or above the average, compared to 38 percent of the others.[162]

Government money will be spent on the effects of poverty. By spending it early in a child's life, less is required and more is to be gained. Enhancing the already existing school efforts is far more efficient than designing and supporting programs in isolation to repair damage already evident.

The most reliable predictors of early childbearing, delinquency, and dropping out of school have been found to be student failure, poor reading performance as early as grade three, truancy, poor achievement, misbehaviour in elementary school, and failure to master school skills throughout schooling. Intervention programs which result in the elimination of these contributing factors will inevitably see savings years later in social services and justice budgets, and significant gains in the amount of tax dollars collected from productively employed citizens. Self-report surveys indicate that delinquent youth from all socio-economic backgrounds commit some types of delinquencies throughout their adolescent years; however, the majority of incarcerated youth come from poor families. There are a number of factors which place children more at risk of engaging in delinquent activities including poor nutrition and health, poor school performance, child abuse or neglect, family violence, living in low income housing projects, inconsistent or poor parenting skills, psychological disorders, and early childhood behavioral disorders.[163]

The long term cost to society of having students leave school unable to be productively employed is astronomical. Even if moral and educational arguments are not considered, the economic gains alone which would result from adequately meeting the needs of disadvantaged children should be sufficient to convince legislators that it does not make sound financial sense to continue to allow social and economic barriers to exist. It is a false economy to cut programs which work for poor children.

Ross[164] went to considerable length to demonstrate the economic implications of dropping out of school:

- Most (two-thirds) school dropouts come from families which are poor, in which the head of the household has not been fully employed, and in which the education level of the parents is very low. These findings support the argument that there is a cycle of disadvantage which follows from one generation to the next.
- There is a strong positive relationship between education level, employment and income. Lifetime income for females with a university degree compared to that of dropouts with less than nine years of education is 3.5 times as great. For men the income differential is 2.4 times. The lifetime income of those having graduated from high school is 1.8 times as great for females and 1.4 times as great for males than for dropouts.
- Generally the higher the level of education, the more years a person will spend employed. A Canadian male dropout will be unemployed an average 5.8 years compared to 2.7 years for a high school graduate, and will spend 6.6 not in the labour force, compared to 3.6 year for a high school graduate. The difference in years of unemployment is not as significant for female dropouts, 2.8 years compared to 2.3 years for a high school graduate, but female dropouts will spend 23.2 years not in the labour force, compared to 13.8 years for female high school graduates (and 8.4 years for females with a university degree).
- Dropouts will contribute far less than graduates in taxes. The average male with less than nine years of education will contribute $152,000 less than a high school graduate between the ages of 25 and 65 years of age (1990 dollars). The average female will contribute $96,000 less than a female high school graduate, 48 percent of graduates' contributions.
- Dropouts will draw greater amounts of social assistance and unemployment insurance benefits than will high school graduates. Male dropouts will draw $107,000 compared to $49,000 for graduates; female dropouts will draw $62,000 compared to $34,000 for graduates.
- The proportion of lost incomes and revenue and increased program costs attributable to dropping out induced *by poverty alone* were calculated. These young people constitute at least 11 percent of all dropouts. In 1989 in this province there were approximately 2100 dropouts. Assuming that 11% dropped out because of poverty and 15% of these people will

later complete a high school education, that leaves 197 dropouts in one year alone, costing the government in lost income taxes $50,900 for **each** male and $28,500 for **each** female over their working lives.

- Canada wide, public revenues that could be gained by eliminating poverty induced dropouts were added to the savings on the UI and social assistance programs, and the foregone contributions to the nation's output measured by lost incomes, the cost to society of tolerating poverty induced early school leaving can be estimated to be $33 billion over the lifetimes of one year's dropouts.
- Continuing levels of child poverty will make it extremely difficult to sustain economic competitiveness past the turn of the century, and will therefore make it impossible to maintain retirement benefits and health care systems.[165]

The Bro. T. I. Murphy Centre[166] calculated in a similar fashion the costs of under-educated youth over their lifetimes to the province. Three case studies were presented, each one a story of a young person who left school early and subsequently enroled at the T. I. Murphy Centre for academic upgrading. Calculated over the period of their working lives of each, the costs of social services support and lost earning power were calculated to be $486,000, $539,200, and $584,400 ***each***. These figures demonstrate what was stated above, that the amount of money required to ensure that children succeed in school is a bargain -- and a worthwhile investment.

There are many "risk factors" we can do something about. It is within our capability to calculate the full cost of unemployment (including the decrease in public revenues), health costs, social services and specialist services, which are the result of a failure to address social and economic problems. It costs money to create for all children conditions which will make learning possible, but it costs more money not to do so, in the short term but especially in the long term.

Many have argued that the creation of an educated population will create a vibrant economy, but this is not a simple issue. Being dependent on social assistance presents a number of obstacles for children and their families: the social assistance income of a family of two adults and two children in Newfoundland in 1990 was only 45.5 per cent of the poverty line income for this province.[167] However, even those who are skilled enough to gain employment are at risk. In 1986, 37.4 percent of all poor children came from families where either one or both parents worked the full year but still had a poverty income[168], and *the majority of two income families in Canada are working poor.*[169] Family incomes had risen steadily between 1967 and 1980, but have been in decline since then. In 1975 workers earning the minimum wage and supporting a spouse and a child could earn 81 per cent of a poverty-line income. They would have had to work 50 hours a week to raise that income to the poverty line. By 1986, 87 hours of work a week were needed to achieve a poverty-line income; by then a normal work week at the minimum wage generated only 46 per cent of the poverty line for two adults and a child.[170]

If these minimum wage workers had a better education would they have better paying jobs? In saying that most jobs by the year 2000 will require a high school graduation certificate it cannot be argued that those who hold the jobs at the bottom of that new ladder will have a better standard of living than they have now. Ensuring the opportunity for all citizens to have a healthy financial position would be possible only if the province's economy underwent a major transformation and/or there was commitment to see that economic benefits extended to everyone. Whether or not this takes place, the education system can take seriously the task of giving each child, regardless of economic circumstance, the opportunity to compete equally in the employment market.

In the realm of public discussion it is not often argued that children should go hungry or that victims of abuse do not deserve counselling. It is the cost of providing what is considered to be valuable services which is perceived to be the barrier to program development and implementation. It is not being argued here that the needs of children should be met purely for economic reasons. Rather, this report merely underscores the principles inherent in existing social policy. The moral character of a society can be measured by the way in which it cares for its least advantaged and least powerful members. However, unless those who hold positions of leadership are persuaded that it is economically and politically sound to introduce programs for the disadvantaged, it is unlikely that committed and sustained efforts will be directed toward the problem. In the discussion of this issue it is important to bear in mind that seeing that minimum conditions for learning are established is essential to ***the attainment of educational goals.***

> "...the school is just one of many societal agencies which promote inequality, and ... it cannot hope to eliminate inequality single-handedly: it must link up with broader societal movements pressing in this direction. ... The school could make an important, distinctive contribution by teaching less biased conceptions of society, politics and culture and by modifying the structure and content of schooling so that harmful divisions and invidious distinctions are reduced."[171]

## IV. CHILDREN WITH EXCEPTIONAL LEARNING NEEDS

### Special Education Concerns

The previous discussion focused on children who come to school with difficulties caused by social and economic factors. There are also children who, for a variety of other reasons, experience difficulty with the learning process, and who, in the literature on the subject, are frequently designated as "students with exceptionalities".

Students having special needs will require extra resources if they are to attain the same goals as students capable of following the standard curriculum. Their needs are diverse in nature and severity, and inevitably in this growing field there will be students who are not well served by the present system, in spite of the best intentions.

The challenge facing all educators in this province as well as elsewhere is that of making schools effective for *all* students. The Division of Student Support Services within the Department of Education is responsible for ensuring that the needs of all students deemed to be "exceptional" are met. The Division has accepted the following as a description of the population it serves:

> Students with exceptionalities are those who are unable to experience success with the present curriculum, are unchallenged by the curriculum to grow and develop to the fullest extent of their capabilities and/or are unable to meet graduation requirements. This population includes, but is not limited to students who may be gifted and/or physically handicapped, environmentally disadvantaged, or who may have difficulties related to ability, learning, behaviour, language and/or communication.

In Newfoundland teacher allocations are based on the nature of students' exceptionality. Students who have hearing or visual impairment or who have severe mental or physical disabilities are assigned to categories A,B,C, or D, and are allocated one specialist teaching unit per four students. Students who have other exceptionalities such as behavioural disorders, specific learning disabilities, learning problems which are not considered to be severe, and students who have superior learning ability are considered to be "non-categorical". Allocations for these students are made on the basis of 5 - 7.5 units per thousand students in a school district, the category determining the specific allocation being dependent on the total enrolment and the number of schools under the board's jurisdiction. Larger boards which have higher student-to-building ratios are allocated fewer special education teachers. In the 1991-92 school year there were 859 teachers working in the special education field out of a total of 7856 full time teachers. Each year there are approximately 75 graduates from Memorial University receiving special education degrees. Progress in the area of special education has been phenomenal in the last twenty-five years. In most boards, there is an assistant superintendent having responsibility for special education services.

The Department policy adopted in 1987 is based on an adaptation of the Cascade Model of Reynolds and Birch (1977), which suggests that students having special needs be taught in regular educational environments wherever possible, but increasingly specialized services and segregated environments be accessible if warranted, from "diverse educational environments with special education support", to "specialized educational environments" and "limited educational environments", such as the Newfoundland School for the Deaf. In a very early article, Reynolds (1962) noted that as placement moves from the least restricted to the most restricted environment the following observations can be made:[172]

a) the problems of children placed in programs tend to become more severe or more complex;
b) programs tend to become more expensive;
c) responsibility for administration of programs shifts from school authorities to health, welfare or correction authorities;
d) children are more separated from ordinary school and home life;
e) demands for highly specialized personnel increase;
f) parent and general public understanding of programs decreases.

What has changed in the last 30 years is quite obvious: while the field of special education has grown enormously and now serves more children with special needs than ever before, it is the education system which has borne increasing degrees of responsibility for special needs children's full remedial program. Further, it is the classroom teacher, who is not required to have had any courses in special education, is now being relied upon to implement program plans for students who were once the exclusive responsibility of specialists.

The external environment has changed as well. Significant increases in the number of reported cases of child abuse create new demands on the education system. According to Rix Rogers, Special Advisor to the Minister of Health and Welfare, the trauma of sexual abuse is the underlying cause of many later behavioural problems. In Newfoundland, the closure of Exon House, the Children's Home and the change of the Children's Rehabilitation Centre to an out-patient facility, has resulted in increased numbers of students with severe physical disabilities and severe mental handicaps being placed in regular schools. The decrease in the length of stay in acute-care health facilities means that students return to school earlier and require medical interventions. These changes and a philosophy of normalization has changed the face of every classroom in the province over the last ten years. The changing nature of our society demands that support services are in place, not only to meet the educational needs of students, but to meet other personal and psycho-social needs that are deterrents to educational achievement.[173]

In the last decade many students who would have received special services in a segregated settings have been placed in regular schools and often in regular classes. There still exist segregated classes for severely disabled students, but there are usually efforts made to include these students whenever possible in the life of the school. When children who have special and challenging needs are integrated into the regular classroom they require a modified program, and in some cases student assistants are provided for individual students. Special education teachers still have responsibility for the development of individual program plans, in consultation with other school personnel, the school principal, and parents.

The Department of Education special education policy is comprehensive, and includes guidelines for the development of individual program plans, parental involvement, implementation of policy at the district and school level, and staffing requirements. The policy has recently undergone a revision to clarify intent, and to bring it into line with changed regulations. The policy was implemented using a project schools approach, through which all special education co-ordinators participated in a week-long in-service program and had an opportunity to observe program delivery at the school level in the pilot schools. Proposed expansion of this approach was halted because of staffing limitations. The main thrust of the Division's efforts in the last number of years has been to focus on *program*, through the development of individual program plans, rather than *placement*. That is, students producing evidence of exceptionality should be assessed by qualified educators and a program should be developed through the combined efforts of educational personnel, other specialists as required, and parents. The provisions of the plan would suggest the most appropriate means of attaining the stated goals, including the most appropriate form of placement, which could include the regular classroom with alterations to the standard curriculum in content, pace or approach; the regular classroom with support services; or out-of-classroom placement for part or all of the school day.

It appears that there are conflicting attitudes in the field of special education. Some argue that students with exceptionalities are best served through the provision of highly specialized services delivered by personnel specifically trained in the area of difficulty, while others argue that specialized programs have the effect of lowering expectations and thereby achievement. While recognizing the principle that *all* children deserve an education, fundamental principles undergirding special education policies have not escaped criticism in the literature.

Gene Glass[174] is highly critical of special education policy and programs for all but severely disabled students. "Special education diagnosis is a duke's mixture of politics, science fiction, medicine, social work, administrative convenience, and what-not."[175] He argued that: different approaches differ little on the average in their outcomes, but that the same approach differs greatly in effectiveness from teacher to teacher and school to school; that special education systems are based on a medical model assuming that handicaps have physiological, neurological or biochemical bases; and that studies of the effectiveness of special education programs demonstrate that differential programming has had no effect on student outcomes. Citing Carlberg's 1979 summary of 50 controlled experimental studies,[176] he showed that for the 27,000 students studied, those placed in special education classes were slightly worse off in terms of achievement and social or personality adjustment than if they had been left in regular classrooms, and that special education placement showed no tangible benefits whatsoever for the pupils. Michael Scriven, building on Glass's criticism,[177] took issue with the practice of matching diagnosis with particular kinds of teaching: "...Of course it is attractive to think that if a child is defective in performance dimension *n* then training in performance dimension *n* will improve the situation. But it may not improve it at all, it may improve it only in the short term, and much more important, the time and resource cost of that intensified treatment may produce such side effects as loss of attention in other areas which are far more serious than the gains in the treated areas. In a word, the argument for mainstreaming." Scriven also has concerns about mainstreaming, however, stating that the two most serious flaws in the view that mainstreamed children do better than children who are not mainstreamed and that all handicapped children should be mainstreamed are a) it completely disregards negative effects on the other people in the mainstreamed classes, effects which can be serious but have received little attention, and b) the possibility that a solution that works well (for them) when a few students are mainstreamed will not work well if a large number of students are mainstreamed, because it will pull the level of instruction down below the level they would have received in segregated classes. Scriven sees poor diagnosis as being a major impediment to adequate programming for special education students.

The issue of special programs creating low expectations and lowered achievement arises in the discussion of appropriate placement for special needs students. Jeannie Oakes' Keeping Track presents the argument that low ability students are bound to perform below their capability if they are placed in segregated programs. A related problem with programming for special needs students is that they become "lifers", falling increasingly further behind their age-mates as they go through school, never able to transfer back to a regular stream.

A recent review of the research on special education programs was conducted by Anderson and Pellicer. Their findings are congruent with the experience of educators locally, although there has never been a full scale review of programs in this province.[178] Some of their pertinent findings are listed below.

1. Integration of compensatory and remedial programs into the total school program is often lacking. In addition, administrative leadership for these programs within the school often does not exist or exists at some minimal level. Schools' compensatory and remedial programs typically exist in isolation.

2. Teachers teach to the students' present levels of academic functioning, rather than to the levels they will need to achieve to be successful in the future. Many compensatory and remedial students appear to be very successful in the short term but remain largely unsuccessful over the long haul.

3. Principals may not have a clear understanding of the rationale for selecting particular remedial and compensatory models for their schools, much less an understanding of how to integrate these special programs within the regular school curriculum.

4. The selection of instructional staff may be quite important in influencing the effectiveness of program delivery models. Using aides in compensatory and remedial programs is problematic because of their general lack of qualifications and training. Aides vary greatly in the quality of instruction they provide to students.

5. The majority of students enroled in compensatory and remedial programs remain in or periodically return to those programs for the better part of their school lives.

6. Compensatory programs do not work very well. They have merely slowed the rate at which they students fall further behind.

Notwithstanding the importance of these criticisms, the major area of concern in this province in the special education field is the *fragmentation of service delivery*, the inadequate coordination among all the agencies, personnel and departments who are involved in assessment, diagnosis, program planning and evaluation of students who have special needs. In many special needs areas professionals outside the education field are involved in program planning for students who are also receiving special programs through the school.

Locally there are many issues of concern related to the delivery of special education programs, and many of these were raised in submissions to the Commission. These are noted below.

- In recent years through implementation of the Department of Education policy many special needs students are placed in the regular classroom for all or part of the instructional day. Problems noted above regarding unsound diagnosis procedures notwithstanding, planning for special needs students has in general placed their needs uppermost, and where possible appropriate support personnel, program, and placement has been provided. However, classroom teachers have not been adequately trained to teach these students nor appropriately interact with student assistants. The needs of students following the regular program must also be considered in evaluating the effectiveness of this approach. While it is socially beneficial to facilitate understanding and acceptance of difference, it is appropriate to determine the conditions which should exist in order for integrated classrooms to be effective learning environments for both the special needs and regular students. Class size, adjustment of teaching methods to accommodate the presence of student assistants in the classroom, the design and layout of schools and classrooms, provision of space for medical personnel and other professionals are examples of areas which will require review if integration is to be successful. In some cases it may be appropriate for medical personnel to be assigned to a school.

  While there are without doubt benefits to all students arising from integration, there is a need to evaluate the effectiveness of this approach for both the special needs children *and the others in the integrated setting*. Concerns about integration of students who have behavioral disorders were raised in several submissions. This is the most obvious situation in which there is a conflict between the best interests of the special needs student and the those of other students in the class. Children with behavioural problems are difficult to serve because of inadequate personnel and other resources. These students pose particular difficulties for a school, as integrating them into a regular class can seriously interfere with the learning environment of other students. One local special education co-ordinator reported to the Commission that behaviour disorders is the area causing the greatest problem in Newfoundland schools today.

- Training of *special education teachers* not always adequately prepares them to work effectively in the changing special education field. Teachers training to work in the special education field are not required to take any courses in corrective reading as part of their special education degree program, even though at the primary and elementary levels special education teachers spend a great deal of their time working with students who have reading difficulty.

  The training of *classroom teachers* does not adequately recognize their role in teaching children with exceptionalities. Unless classroom teachers take additional courses they graduate ill prepared to identify and/or instruct exceptional students. There has not been a system wide program to train classroom teachers who are responsible for teaching students who at one time would have had most of their program delivered in a segregated classroom by special education specialists. Classroom teachers as well as specialists such as physical education and music teachers all need to know how to appropriately implement the program plans of integrated special needs students, even if some of these students are given support through student assistants and special education specialists. Further, unless classroom teachers are sufficiently aware of the symptoms of learning disorders and are able to identify problems, and identify them early in a child's schooling, appropriate remedial action will not be taken.

  School principals too must have some degree of knowledge about educating special needs students as they cannot be divorced from any of the educational programs operating in their schools. For special needs students, particularly those who are served by several teachers and other professionals, the principal's role is crucial if an appropriate, coordinated student-centred program is to be delivered efficiently.

- Inequitable funding is an issue which is a concern for both rural and urban school districts for different reasons. In *rural districts* there are fewer students requiring differential programming, but they are thinly spread and difficult to serve with specialist expertise. In addition, rural boards do not receive the same grants for severely disabled students as do the two St. John's boards which operate developmental units for severely handicapped children. However, in large *urban boards* staffing allocation formulas provide fewer teachers than for rural boards for "non-categorical" special needs students. Students are more easily served, but there are more of them. It has been suggested that the formula based on the student-to-school ratio is inappropriate because special needs are independent of the number of schools in a board and because it is arbitrary in its determination of category boundaries. To illustrate the problem, in one particular case, if two boards consolidated and combined schools where appropriate, there would be a significant *loss* of special education teachers although there would be no reduction in the number of special needs students to be served.

  The level of funding, and long term commitment which would permit long range planning, were also raised as a problems. The Department itself sees this issue to be of great concern, as it directly affects their ability to provide personnel to raise awareness in the school community, and ensure that means are found to see Department policy implemented.

  • School boards have pointed to the inadequate staff allocation for "non-categorical" students. Even in the highest category only 7.5 teachers (over the regular classroom teacher allocations) are provided for every 1000 students, and these teachers must serve slow learners, learning disabled students, the gifted, students who have language and speech difficulties, behaviour disordered and emotionally disturbed students and any others who are not severely disabled.

- Accessibility to schools for physically disabled students is still a problem in many areas, and one which was cited in several briefs to the Commission.

- The Newfoundland Teachers' Association Special Interest Music Council cited the need for music teacher in-service so that music teachers would be able to effectively teach handicapped children and be able to offer a music therapy program. Other specialists, such as those working in physical education and art would also benefit from in-service programs for the same reason.

- There are no formal accountability mechanisms in place in this province for any area of education including special education. Inappropriately trained personnel, inappropriate program plans, inadequate attention to particular problems can all occur without any component of the system being held responsible. There are many students in this province who need some form of instructional assistance whose problems have not been recognized nor addressed, and other students have been poorly or inappropriately served by the school system.

- Integration of special needs students may require changes such as a smaller class size, sufficient physical space to easily accommodate wheelchairs, and changes in teaching methods to accommodate the varying instructional levels of the pupils in the class.

- Children whose needs are not severe enough to warrant specialist services are at risk of failure unless instruction is responsive to them. There are many students who cannot keep up with the average rate of instruction but who do not receive academic assistance.

- In sparsely populated areas children of "low incidence populations" do not have access to specialist services.

- Children in French Immersion programs are at present not provided with access to special education and remedial services, although it is not Department policy which excludes them but board practice. At present access to early French immersion, which begins in Kindergarten, is not restricted by student ability. A heterogeneous group can be expected, as can the likelihood that some students will require extra assistance if they are to keep pace with their classmates. Most learning difficulties are not language specific, and transferring out of French Immersion does not remove the students' problems, but merely makes it possible for them to obtain help. Preliminary results of a study conducted for the Ottawa Board of Education[179] indicate that nearly half of the early French immersion students who received some form of remedial service in 1987 - 1988 were "demitted" from the service and returned to their French immersion classroom without an immediate need for further service. Since fluency in French is at least as beneficial to less able learners as to the most able, and since student support services are provided on the basis of the total enrolment of a board, including those in French immersion programs, these children should be eligible for remedial help.

- Very rarely do children graduate from special education programs to the regular program. School dropouts, in a brief to the Commission, stated that although the special education system provided the opportunity for smaller classes and thereby more teacher time and the *potential* for being returned to the regular class, in fact once streamed into the special education system there was little likelihood of this occurring. "Special Education is too often seen as a one-way dead-end street, regardless of many positive features."[180] It is the case, however, that the introduction of the 1987 policy has resulted in many more children being served through special education than was the case when most were placed in segregated classes, and there are many who now follow the regular curriculum.

- When students receiving special services are taught by more than one teacher (the regular classroom teacher and the remedial teacher or special education teacher, for example) there can be a lack of coordination can result in a program which lacks direction and cohesion.

### The Cost of Serving Special Needs Students

Most societies, including our own, take responsibility for those who require extra resources in order to live at a reasonable standard of living. There can be no justification for denying individuals the opportunity to be able to contribute to society simply because they have a disability. We have the means to address the needs of students who are mentally and physically delayed, autistic, and learning disabled. Not to adequately serve these children is to see lives wasted unnecessarily.

Highly qualified specialist teachers are expensive, especially if they see students individually or in small groups. The figures can appear daunting, but the cost must be viewed in its proper context. It is expensive to educate any child, and as in other areas of unserved need which result in children being unable to become successful students, the cost of ***not*** dealing with the problem is far greater. Students who leave the school system unable to earn a living will inevitably be dependent on government funds. Providing money while they are in school is an investment. Local research has shown that learning disabled students who receive remediation are more successful on entry into the job market, and the longer the treatment is provided, the better the job placement is likely to be.[181] More research of this type, which could demonstrate the long term personal, social, and societal benefits of properly educating all our children would be a worthwhile endeavour.

To accept the principle that all children have the right to an education which will enable them to participate fully in society, at least as much as their abilities will permit, is to accept that means must be found to make this possible.

### Addressing the Problem

A number of proposals have been suggested to address the many problems in the area of special education which were brought to the attention of the Commission. These include the following:

1. An evaluation of special education policy, programs and personnel deployment be undertaken.
2. Protocols be developed among all agencies and Departments which serve students who have special needs.
3. Develop stronger communication links between parents, medical and psychological professionals, and school personnel. Parents need to know their children's academic needs, what services the school can provide and which may be desirable but are unavailable. School personnel need to know of evaluations conducted by other professionals, and need to be kept informed regularly of services being provided outside the school, and vice versa, so that all personnel can capitalize on the others' efforts for the benefit of the student.
4. Teacher education programs, both pre-service and in-service, should take into account current educational practice. Classroom teachers often take responsibility for special program delivery. They must also be aware of the symptoms of medical and cognitive problems which need to be addressed for medical and educational reasons.
5. Because the acquisition of basic literacy and numeracy skills is necessary for school success, and because the cycle of school failure usually has its beginning in the primary grades, emphasis should be placed on early observation, diagnosis, and intervention to ensure that all children have access to a program, whether delivered by the regular classroom teacher or by specialists or a combination, which will enable them to succeed to their potential.
6. The effectiveness of types of special education programs should be evaluated.
7. School principals should be prepared to provide leadership for programs in their school for students with special needs and therefore will need to acquire adequate knowledge of special education to able to fulfil this function.
8. Some training in special education should be provided for all teachers in the province. All student teachers should have an opportunity to gain experience in special education settings, and all classroom teachers, physical education and music specialists, and school administrators should be given pre-service

and in-service training if there is to be coherence in the delivery of special education services. Even when students' special needs are addressed primarily by specialists, the effectiveness of the program is dependent upon the daily support of the classroom teacher. In the case of speech disorders, for example, a student may see a speech pathologist infrequently, even in urban areas, but if the classroom teacher knows what ought to be practised daily there will inevitably be faster progress.

9. Links need to be forged with families so that parents will be able to support the schools' efforts and increase the effectiveness of special services.

The discussion above focused on the many problems which currently exist in the area of special education. Problems of resourcing, teacher preparation, integration of special needs students into regular classrooms and co-ordination of specialist services apply to the whole area of special education and are in need of attention.

In addition to these general problems, there are a number of particular categories of special needs students whose needs in particular have not been adequately met by existing policy and practice. The needs of some groups of children were cited in the submissions to the Commission as those requiring examination: those who have specific learning disabilities, autism, behavioural disorders or who are emotionally disturbed, speakers of English as a second language, confined to hospital and home, as well as those who have an exceptionally high ability to learn. These categories will be discussed in the following section.

## Chrildren with Learning Disabilities

A learning disability has been defined by the U.S. *Education of All Handicapped Children Act* as; "... those children who have a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may manifest itself in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. Such disorders include such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia." Such a term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

Not adequately dealing with learning disabilities represents the greatest waste of potential in the school system, according to one senior administrator in the province. A learning disability interferes with some aspect of a person's ability to process incoming sensory data to render it meaningful. Stanovich has challenged the validity of using discrepancy measures to diagnose learning disabilities and argues that students across the full ability spectrum may be afflicted.[182] However, it is usually an apparent discrepancy between a students oral ability and their reading and writing skills which triggers referral for assessment. According to the Department of Education, in this province today approximately two percent of students have some form of a specific learning disability. Quite often these students are misunderstood and are considered to be lazy or uncooperative. This attitude combined with the school failure caused by the inability to acquire basic reading skills at an appropriate stage results in damage to self-esteem which further contributes to the problem. "Once a negative self-concept is established it is a difficult trait to change. Not only does a poor self-image interfere with learning to read, but the resulting reading disability leads to even more failure and less self-worth. A vicious cycle of failure is set in motion. Unless something is done to break the cycle or reverse the trend so that the child begins to achieve and feel capable and worthwhile, it is very likely that he/she will become another dropout statistic."[183] Early detection, referral, and program planning are crucial if the cycle of failure is to be averted, and if parents are to be engaged in the effort to assist the school in remediation of the learning difficulty. The role of the classroom teacher is very important. If the classroom teacher cannot recognize the symptoms of learning disabilities and does not take steps to see that the problem is addressed, school failure is a very likely consequence for these children. Children do not grow out of learning disabilities. Very often parents do not know the cause of their children's poor school performance. Specialist teachers will never have cause to assess a student unless the classroom teacher brings the problem to their attention.

Learning disabilities at present are covered under the non-categorical section of the Department of Education Special Education Policy, "children who cannot benefit properly from normal classroom instruction", under which boards are allocated 5 - 7.5 specialist teachers for every 1000 students under their jurisdiction. However, parents of learning disabled children and concerned educators are very concerned about the service offered to these children. A recent local newspaper headline captured the problem: "Volunteers prepared for difficult year. Learning disabled ignored; no funding, facilities scarce".[184]

Increasingly the role of the teacher is being viewed as an impossible one to fulfil if everybody's expectations are to be met. However, there must be means found to raise the awareness of the personally and socially catastrophic results of allowing students who have learning disabilities to remain unserved. Addressing this problem is not a simple issue for many reasons.

1. Although a great deal is known about the nature of learning disabilities, both from research and the experiences of parents and teachers, fundamental questions still remain unanswered. Some types of remediation are effective for some students, for reasons which are not always clear. This is true for most areas of education generally and special education in particular, but in the field of learning disabilities which is still fighting for credibility, lack of understanding has mitigated efforts to seek appropriate solutions. Even though learning disabilities may share many characteristics with learning problems which have a different aetiology, unless they are conceptualized as being distinctive, even if only in a transient stage, the field is likely to receive insufficient attention to bring about change.

2. Inappropriate expectations and instruction can arise from inappropriate placement and labelling. This can happen in two ways in particular. Through misunderstanding of the reason for their poor reading and writing, learning disabled children have been placed in the same special education classes as students with low ability. On the other hand, low intelligence is considered to be a very negative characteristic, and labels which connote low intelligence are in general stiffly resisted by parents. Because learning disabilities are thought to afflict students of average or above average intelligence, it is a more acceptable diagnosis, and therefore often used inappropriately. Use of the term "specific learning disability" is preferred for this reason.

3. Very few people in this province have expertise in the field of learning disabilities. There is no requirement that classroom teachers take a course in learning disabilities, and even special education teachers have a limited background. In any case, very few new teachers gain entry into the schools, and unless massive in-service efforts are undertaken, misunderstanding, misdiagnosis and inappropriate programming (or none at all) will continue. It has been suggested that under present conditions development of program plans can actually do these students a disservice because some teachers then assume that the problem has thereby been addressed.

Because this has been an under-resourced and under-served field for so long, extra-ordinary effort may be required in the short term to ensure that all students who have a need have access to service. Indicative of the schools' inability to cope with the number and nature of requests in the learning disabilities field is the high number of referrals, about 200 per year, made to the recently closed Diagnostic and Remedial Unit in the Faculty of Education at Memorial, even in recent years when the education system has had the best qualified teaching force in its history.

4. The misunderstanding of learning disabilities by other students in the school is also a significant issue. Learning disabled students attending the R.E.A.D.Y. Centre, an alternative high school program in St. John's for those who have dropped out of conventional school, stated in their brief to the Commission

that the negative comments of their peers was even a more serious problem than the inappropriate teaching strategies of their teachers.[185]

5. Outside the education system there is very little remedial and counselling available for students with learning disabilities. Although the Diagnostic and Remedial Unit which had been a part of the Faculty of Education served primarily students in the St. John's area its recent closure left many parents and students with no special help available to them. The Thomas Anderson Centre in St. John's is able to help some students, but there is a very long waiting list.

6. Special teacher allocations are perceived to be too low to adequately address the needs of learning disabled children.

There are and have been several approaches employed to deliver appropriate instruction to students with learning disabilities. Until 1987 the provincial government used to fund students to go to Nova Scotia to attend Landmark East, a special residential school for children with learning disabilities. This was a successful strategy for those who attended, even though the subsidy they were given did not cover the costs, but the province withdrew funding claiming that Newfoundland was capable of dealing with the problem within its own education system.

There are a number of advantages to segregated schools. Firstly, the entire curriculum and set of curriculum delivery strategies can be designed to enhance the learning of learning disabled students. A more focused effort is possible than in a regular school, and in a residential setting this effort can extend beyond classroom hours. When learning disabled students are placed in regular classes it is highly unlikely, even with a teacher who has a degree of expertise in the field, that given modern teaching practice, they will experience the structured environment in which they seem to perform best. Secondly, students in a completely segregated setting do not have to struggle to maintain their self-esteem. Everyone in the school, both students and teachers, understands why they have so much difficulty in school. Eliminating the anxiety learning disabled students experience in most school settings is key to successful remediation.

Although some special education personnel have suggested that if learning disabled students are to be properly served they must be at least aggregated, if not segregated, there are disadvantages. Numbers would likely warrant only one or two schools in the province, so that either only students in those particular areas would be served or residential capabilities would have to be created. In the case of the latter option, it is unlikely that primary and elementary aged children would enrol, even though early programming and treatment is the most effective strategy.

Other approaches have been employed. One large board in the province has established a learning disabilities unit, in which students are given two sessions a week for a semester and their classroom teachers are given recommendations for follow up instruction. In another board, remedial reading teachers are given the responsibility of addressing the need of learning disabled students. A board psychologist oversees programs, and each school has a contact person.

Some local educators feel that it is possible and preferable to appropriately meet the needs of learning disabled students without having to send them out of province, that it is not the present system per se which is flawed, but specific components of it. The system would be more effective if there were proper identification and programming, and if staff allocations were increased. The Learning Disabilities Association has recommended that children with learning disabilities be placed in the "categorical" instead of the "non-categorical" classification, so that one teacher would be allocated for every 4 identified students. From a survey of parents and the comments of teachers on students' cumulative records, Andrews[186] concluded that there was a consensus that learning disabled children required more individual attention than the regular classroom teacher could reasonably be expected to supply. She noted that a child with a mild disability could be remediated in the classroom through the classroom teacher, but that problems of greater severity would require the specialist services of a remedial reading teacher or clinic instructor.

Perhaps the greatest potential for improvement lies in extending support to parents of learning disabled children. They need to know how to support the school's instructional plan, and how to work effectively as advocates in an environment of fierce competition for decreasing resources. Andrews[187] found in her study that often parents had not been kept informed of the efforts the school had made to deal with their children's problems.

The key problem which must be addressed if these children are to be served is that of teacher qualifications. Unless teachers understand the problem, reinforce rather than damage students' self-esteem, and know how to employ appropriate, effective teaching strategies, programming, placement, and increased allocations will be a waste of time and money. Early detection leads to early intervention, and the longer the treatment the better the long term outlook for learning disabled children.

### Addressing the Problem

A number of proposals have been suggested.

1. Specialist teacher allocations should be increased and all present and potential teachers in the province be provided with sufficient background in learning disabilities to be able to recognize and refer the learning disabled students in their classes.

2. A proposal which would address the needs of learning disabled, autistic, gifted, language disordered students and other "low-incidence populations" is the establishment of a number of regional resource centres using many of the successful characteristics of the former Diagnostic and Remedial Unit. The Regional Centre would exist *primarily as a teacher training unit*, although students would be served in the teacher training process. It should have the following features:

   - association with the Faculty of Education
   - programs to provide extended in-service to classroom teachers
   - programs to train specialists to provide special instruction in schools
   - programs for school administrators who could then monitor and evaluate service to students
   - a library/resource materials centre
   - a facility designed so that student teachers are able to view through one way mirrors skilled teachers practising their art
   - access for teachers, whether or not they are undergoing training programs, to the expertise and materials resident in the centre

3. The advantages of a segregated school be reviewed, and the possibility of establishing schools in this province using the Landmark East model should be examined. This approach has been quite effective for many Newfoundland students. Perhaps a modification of this approach would be feasible, having segregated classes within one designated school in a district, for example. These students could follow a different schedule, having study periods in the building in the evenings, for example.

## Children with Autism

Although there is provision for teaching units for autistic children under present special education policy, the Commission addressed this area for two reasons. Firstly, there is a limit the ability of the present special education policy to adequately address the needs of these students, and secondly, parents and groups representing children with autism presented a number of concerns to the Commission.

Autism is a severely-handicapping lifelong disability which manifests itself in the first 30 months of life. Autism is usually characterized by severe communication and language difficulties, an inability to relate to other people or form social relationships, unusual and problematic behaviour, and responding oddly to sound and sight. Incoming stimuli are unable to be processed properly and cognitive functions are therefore not activated. Autistic children may appear to be insensitive to pain, may have difficulty mixing with other children, may exhibit marked physical over-activity or extreme passivity, and may act as it they are deaf. Autistic children differ from each other in the severity of the handicap and do not necessarily display all the symptoms. Programming for such children must be distinct from that provided for developmentally delayed children or children with other dysfunctions.

Although there is provision for teaching units for autistic children under present special education policy, the Commission addressed this area for two reasons. Firstly, there is a limit to the ability of the present special education policy to adequately address the needs of these students, and secondly, parents and groups representing children with autism presented a number of concerns to the Commission. These include:

- Most teachers trained at Memorial University have not been educationally prepared to teach children with autism or to address adequately their special and distinct needs.
- Increased knowledge and awareness of autism in recent years has shown that special education with suitably trained teachers and other adult support can have a tremendous positive impact on the lives and abilities of autistic children and others with special needs. Without adult support, autistic children cannot function in and benefit from a full program of integration in regular classrooms.
- There is a need for a comprehensive program to guide autistic individuals toward the basic skills necessary to move into the adult world.
- A concern related to school programming is the need for special services, such as those of speech and language pathologists, educational psychologists, and occupational therapists. The concern expressed is that adequate resources be available to *all* schools where there are autistic children.
- A concern was expressed that the extended summer break can become a period of regression for autistic persons if no other structured program is in place for them. Ontario recognizes the need for year-round programming for autistic children in the establishment of child-development centres throughout the province. It was felt that school districts, in collaboration with parents, should examine the feasibility of such an approach in this province.

### Addressing the Problem

To better meet the needs of children with autism, it is suggested that the Department of Education take steps to ensure that adequate resources including personnel and programming are available to school boards which have autistic students.

## Children with Behaviour Disorders and/or Who Are Emotionally Disturbed

Ed Mackey

Several submissions to the Commission highlighted the growing concern that more school-age children are demonstrating behaviour that is socially unacceptable and which creates difficulties for themselves, other students and for the schools. This concern is supported by conditions that prevail across the country which indicate more and more children show signs of behaviour disorders at earlier and earlier ages.

As is the case in other categories of exceptionality, it is sometimes difficult to determine which children actually suffer from these disorders. Within these disorders there is a great variability, ranging from social withdrawal to overt, abusive behaviour. It is clear, however, that children who have such disorders are not well served by the education system. It is also clear that, depending on the severity of behaviour disorder, it may also threaten the balance and harmony necessary to an effective learning environment for all the children. The placement of some children with behaviour disorders in a regular classroom environment thus increases the possibility that neither the needs of that individual nor of other students will be met, and that all will pay a price. In practice, some of these students do not appear to fit anywhere in the system because of persistent behaviour problems.

It is also easy to lose sight of these students who are withdrawn and sit quietly in classrooms. Some of these students continue to perform well academically, but others experience failure. In either case, they are children in difficulty and need help. Until 1987, these students were categorized and provided with "teachers for the emotionally disturbed"; and the role of educational therapist was developed for students with severe behavioral problems. Today, these therapists have to be assigned from either the school districts' special education allocation or basic teacher allocation. This has also led to an increase in the practice of combining the role of guidance counsellor with that of educational therapist.

The needs of children in this designation tend to be dealt with in isolation and many professionals seem to treat the symptoms rather than the causes. The school system cannot deal with this problem on its own. Any resolution to the problem for the individuals, their classmates and their schools will require a strong collective commitment.

## English as a Second Language (ESL) Students

The needs of "English as a Second Language students" have received public attention in recent years because of the large increase in the number of refugees, primarily from Eastern European countries, who have decided to leave their homelands to live in this province. Although a small percentage of those who initially land here remain, virtually all spend considerable periods of time in this province. Children of these families must attend school, but they face an enormous language barrier impeding their ability to integrate into the school setting and be academically successful. Most of these students are found in schools in St. John's, although there are others in smaller communities. The need to address this issue becomes clear when 1991 statistics are compared with those from 1990. In September of 1990 there were 56 ESL students in the St. John's Roman Catholic School Board. By February 1991 the number had increased to 76, and by May 1991 there were 85. Under the Avalon Consolidated School Board, the increase in the same time period went from 45, to 65, to 86. Outside St. John's there are approximately 42 students requiring ESL services. Schools have no advance warning that these students will be enroling, and must quickly access teachers and work to integrate students into the school. In response to pressure from school boards, the Department of Education now provides boards with an ESL resource teacher if there are at least 15 students in the school district who are in need of ESL support service. Boards are provided with a second teacher when the number reaches 35, and more based on multiples of 35. ESL students are integrated into regular classrooms, and it is the role of ESL teachers to provide support services for the students and offer their expertise to classroom teachers on how to program effectively for them. The inability to function well in the English language environment of the school is the major problem these students face. However, their school performance is also affected by the difficulties arising from the stress of leaving family, friends, traditions and possessions, often with little time to prepare for the change. The Department of Education seconded an ESL teacher from one of the school boards for the 1990 - 91 school year, but this teacher has now been reassigned to original duties. A working group having wide representation has been formed to develop policy.[188]

Not all ESL students come to Newfoundland under the same circumstances. They fall into several categories, which include immigrants from non-English speaking countries; Canadian-born of immigrant parents from non-English speaking countries, who may be coming to school with very limited exposure to English; immigrants from English speaking countries where education standards are lower than in Canada and who may therefore need academic upgrading; Canadian-born of immigrant parents from English speaking countries who have not developed proficiency in Standard English; refugees who have left their homelands under traumatic circumstances and who are likely to have emotional scars as well language difficulties; and "visa" students who come to Canada on a student visa to attend school largely because of the intense pressure in their own countries for places in top secondary schools and universities. Although many may have attended schools where English is a major medium of instruction, their proficiency in English may be insufficient to enable them be cope without some form of assistance.[189] In most provinces, except Newfoundland, visa students are charged to attend high school.

Immigrant and refugee children need language training, academic upgrading, and counselling services. These three areas are interrelated are each has an effect on student achievement. Language training is probably to most easily recognized need, but the time required to learn a language, five to seven years in a total immersion environment, is often underestimated. Students are able to gain a surface understanding after one or two years, but ESL students of high school age must spend virtually all their time at school work in order to succeed, sacrificing time for the learning of appropriate social skills which would be equally beneficial in becoming accepted and obtaining employment. Students benefit when the parents receive language instruction as well, but this matter has not been adequately addressed. Only landed immigrants are able to take advantage of language training programs at Avalon Community College, leaving refugees to be served by grant programs obtained by volunteers at the Association for New Canadians. Another problem in the development of effective service is that because the federal government can fund only job training and not education, language programs are geared only to preparation for entry into the workforce.

A study recently conducted by the Canadian School Board Association concluded that Canadian school boards should accept Canada's immigration policy and the responsibility of the public school system to educate all children. The study confirmed, however, that current federal immigration and settlement policies have two major effects on school boards: a) the restriction of federal language training programs to adults leaves the burden of providing the same services to school-age immigrants and refugees entirely to school boards, and b) school boards are forced to provide settlement services such as counselling, psychological assessment, multicultural workers, interpretation, translation, and social workers to immigrant and refugee children because federal resources are directed to adults' adaptation needs.[190] The study suggested that the Federal Government provide financial help to school boards to provide language training and settlement services, and that opportunities for cooperation among the federal government, provincial governments, and school boards be explored.

There are several problem areas which need to be addressed if barriers for these students are to be removed.

1. Under present policy one ESL teacher can be responsible for up to 35 students housed in a number of schools.

2. Receiving teachers have no formal opportunity to learn appropriate and effective instructional strategies for these students, except through accessing the ESL teacher.

3. ESL students in rural settings are spread more thinly and may be too low in number to warrant an ESL teacher.

4. This is an emerging area of need, and school administrators who are in a position of being able to offer direction and support have little knowledge or experience.

5. Immigrants and refugees are served through a number of agencies including the Association for New Canadians, the Department of Employment and Immigration, the Department of the Secretary of State and the provincial Department of Social Services. There is a need to coordinate the efforts of each party in order to maximize the benefit for the student.

6. Programs have not been developed for ESL students.

7. Efforts directed at ESL students would be enhanced if services were extended to the family and were coordinated.

8. There is overlapping jurisdiction over this issue because the federal government has responsibility for immigration, but the provincial government has responsibility for education.

9. Many months of each school year are wasted while the Department processes applications for assistance for ESL students. In many cases it is known in advance how many ESL students will be attending a particular school in the following year and what their level of English proficiency is.

### Addressing the Problem

The Department of Education has already accomplished a great deal in addressing this issue. However, this is a growing area of concern, and a long term commitment will be required to see that ESL students do not suffer unnecessarily because they came to live in this province. The following suggestions should be given consideration.

1. Over the last 25 years a body of research has developed which suggests that teaching English prior to integration is not as effective as integrating children first. There is a need for long-term research on the most effective learning strategies to employ with the various types ESL students. Questions need to be asked about the timing of full integration into a regular class, the nature of specialist services which are most helpful, and the most effective methods of reaching the family of the ESL student.
2. Students from different cultural backgrounds can enrich a school immeasurably. Means should be found to capitalize on these potential contributions, creating mutually beneficial relationships among students.
3. Programs need to be developed for students at all academic levels and ages. Specialist support services can facilitate the use of these materials, but will likely not be available full time to implement them.
4. There should be a coordinator at the provincial level to continue the work of overseeing development of policy, program and implementation strategy. Suitable learning materials need to be developed, adapted or borrowed from areas such as Toronto where there exists a great deal of expertise accumulated over a long period of time. There needs to be strong communication links between the Department of Education and the school boards, and boards need to cooperate in program development and delivery. Guidelines and handbooks for board personnel, schools administrators, and teachers would be helpful. Boards and schools need to know how to access programs, projects, and funds
5. Programs need to be developed specifically for those who come to the province under traumatic circumstances. Language training is important for this group, but more important is counselling which will help them to deal with the psychological problems resulting from the experience of torture or loss of family members, fear for family remaining in the homeland, and other similarly horrific circumstances.
6. Because such a high proportion of the Newfoundland population is of English and Irish origin (98.7 percent) Newfoundland students have little exposure to people whose culture and values are different. To create a climate which would prevent the development of racist attitudes, a deliberate effort will need to be made to see that curriculum materials and teacher attitudes contribute to a positive attitude.
7. "Visa" students, those who come to Canada specifically to obtain a high school education better than what is offered in their own countries, are charged tuition fees in other provinces but not in Newfoundland. It has been suggested that they be asked to contribute to the cost of their

education.

8. The student/teacher ratio for ESL students is much too high. The ESL teacher should not be responsible for any more than twenty or twenty-five students, particularly if travel to different schools is expected.
9. In order to ensure a supply of trained ESL teachers in this province Memorial University should be encouraged to offer courses in teaching ESL.
10. The Faculty of Education at Memorial University should offer courses in ESL education as part of their regular teacher training program.
11. In-service should be provided for schools where there are ESL students in attendance so that the whole school can become involved in ESL education. All ESL teachers should have access to continued professional development.
12. In order to facilitate successful integration, peer coaching/teaching should become a part of the regular ESL program in our high schools.
13. Qualified ESL teachers should be approved and ready to be hired when boards receive the approval to hire an additional teacher.
14. School libraries should be encouraged to purchase literacy materials and multicultural learning resources.
15. A budget should be provided to school boards to purchase ESL resources to be used by the ESL resource teacher.
16. The Department of Education should approve alternate texts to be used by ESL students.

## Gifted Students

Bryan Hartman

Since there are many definitions of the term "gifted" it will help if the definition used for this discussion is presented at the outset. This definition combines the most significant components of earlier definitions and it reflects the fact that the task of defining this construct is an important one. It is the definition which determines everything from which students are gifted and which are not, to the nature of the educational services that are offered for gifted students (Karnes and Koch, 1985). Appendix 1 explains how the definition presented below compares with other definitions in the literature.

> *A gifted student has an exceptional ability to learn and an exceptional need to be taught. This ability may be expressed intellectually, academically, creatively, artistically, socially, or psychomotorically. The development of this ability is influenced by the learning opportunities available to the student and his/her willingness to take advantage of those opportunities. Gifted students require differentiated educational programming that is commensurate with the nature and degree of their exceptionality in order to realize their potential* (Hartman, 1987b).

Rationale for the Provision of Programs for Gifted Students

This topic is addressed frequently in the literature on gifted children and several of the arguments supporting the need for educational programs for gifted students were noted in the submissions made to the Commission. As a starting point on this topic, the writer would like to refer to a brief to the Minister of Education that he prepared for the Newfoundland and Labrador Association for Gifted Children in 1982 (see Appendix 2). This document is especially relevant for three reasons. First, a major portion of it is devoted to presenting a rationale for providing programs for gifted students; second, it places the topic in an historical perspective; and third, the rationale presented is particular to this Province.

The focus of the rationale was a disturbing number of students from schools in and around St.

John's who were referred to school counsellors for assessment because they were experiencing a variety of school problems and subsequently found to score above the 99th percentile on standardized measures of intelligence. The question asked by parents and teachers alike was: If these children are so bright why are they having problems in school? An investigation completed by an ad hoc committee of educators and parents concluded that while the problems of some of the children were of a personal nature, for most it was precisely because they were so bright that they were having problems in school. Evidence for this conclusion came from the research literature on gifted students. First, many of the problems observed in these students are characteristic of those exhibited by gifted students enroled in educational programs that fail to accommodate their exceptionality; e.g., disruptive classroom behaviour, careless work habits, poor academic motivation, inability to "get along" with peers and/or teachers, persistent dislike of school. Ironically, interviews of the parents of these students indicated that most of these children expressed an exceptional interest in learning prior to entering school. They eagerly anticipated school entry, and continually expressed an exceptional interest in learning activities outside the classroom. Why such a discrepancy? The research literature suggests that one of the principal reasons is that there is a mismatch between the exceptional learning capacities of gifted students and the learning demands of school programs that are designed primarily for children whose learning capacities are not exceptional (Clark, 1992; Davis and Rimm, 1989; Gallagher, 1985; Khatena, 1982; Tannenbaum, 1983).

The mismatch between gifted students' learning abilities and learning opportunities is the product of two developmental influences: learning rates and mental ages. Concerning mismatched learning rates, Dunlap (1975) has reported that students with assessed IQs of 140, such as those noted above who have experienced educational problems, learn chronological age-appropriate subject matter in half the time required by children of average intelligence. Students of 170 IQ master the material in one fourth the time typically required. This difference in learning rate causes these students to view conventional instruction as proceeding very slowly, and it leaves them with an exceptional amount of "spare" time. If there is not special educational programming available to make certain the "spare" time is spent on appropriate learning activities, it is quite probable that the extra time will be an interval with nothing to do; a time to be bored. Furthermore, it is extremely likely that some inappropriate form of behaviour will come to occupy the extra time available, thereby creating an educational problem for both the student and the teacher. The accelerated learning rate of gifted students contributes, as well, to the second part of the mismatch problem, mismatched mental ages. Dunlap (1975) also noted that if the intelligence quotients of students were converted to their mental age equivalents, the mental ages of pupils entering kindergarten would range from 4.0 years (IQ 80) to 10.10 years (IQ 180); a range of approximately 7 years which does not include children who are intellectually handicapped. In other words, on the first day of kindergarten, children who are mentally 9.5 to 11 years of age begin an educational program that is designed for children 5 years of age. To make matters worse, the mismatch increases with age. At the beginning of grade 3 the mental age mismatch range is 9.7 years, by grade 6 it is 12.7 years and by grade 10 it is 15.5 years. Given these discrepancies and no special effort to educationally accommodate them, it is not surprising that gifted children have educational problems. If sixth-grade students were forced to spend a year completing academic work appropriate for first-grade students, there would be serious problems for students and educators alike. Yet, because gifted students birth certificates do not indicate their mental ages, such detrimental discrepancies as these go unattended.

### Existing Educational Programs for Gifted Students

Whether they are called "*bemdotadoes*" in Brazil, "*sourdoues*" in France, "supernormal" in China, or "gifted" in Canada, there is a growing worldwide interest in educating gifted students (Sisk, 1990). Currently, over fifty nations are members of the World Council for Gifted and Talented. The increasing size of the reports from the world conferences sponsored by the Council indicates that over the past twenty years there has been a major increase in both the number of member nations and in the number of educational provisions for gifted students that are available in those nations.

Generally speaking, the types of provisions offered in different countries are variations of the array of program types that can be found in any comprehensive text on the subject. What is different and significant is the range of ability accommodated by a nation's grade school program. For example, for philosophical reasons, Japan and Germany claim that they make no special provisions for gifted students. However, both these nations rigorously assess students at the end of their elementary school program and accommodate within the academic stream of their high school program only those students who score very high (Fortner, 1989). From one perspective, nations such as these have no special programs for gifted students. From another, they have what program developers regard to be the most specialized of all programs, special schools for the most able students. Fundamental differences in the basic nature of different nations' educational systems make it very difficult to accurately determine what each is providing for its gifted students.

Less difficult, but not much so, is the task of describing the educational provisions available for gifted students in Canada. The problem is that provisions differ dramatically in both number and nature from province to province, and the task of surveying and describing those differences is considerable. Goguen (1989) recently reported results of a partial follow-up study which supported many of the differences reported a decade ago in the most comprehensive Canadian survey completed to date (Borthwick, Dow, Levesque & Banks, 1980). In general, the most comprehensive provisions for gifted students are available in those provinces which have enacted specific legislation on the subject (Ontario and Saskatchewan). A lower but still extensive level of service was found to be associated with those provinces that have developed specific Ministry-level administrative policy statements on the education of gifted students (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, Alberta, British Columbia, Northwest Territories). The lowest level of service was reported for those provinces which reported no specific provincial policies on gifted education (Yukon, Manitoba, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland).[1]

### Types of Educational Programs for Gifted Students

The terms of reference outlining this question ask for a description of the various types of programs that are used and an explanation of the advantages and disadvantages of each. In addition, a note attached asks that particular attention be given to explaining the term "enrichment" and outlining its advantages and limitations. .

There are now so many types of programs for gifted students that it is very difficult to limit an explanation to the limited space available within this paper. For this reason, the writer has chosen to append to this paper a separate description of educational programs which includes a discussion of enrichment and acceleration (see Appendix 3).

### Existing Educational Programs for Newfoundland's Gifted Students

Concerning an overview of existing educational programs for Newfoundland's gifted students, Hartman (1981, 1987a) conducted two surveys that are relevant to this question (see Appendix 4).[2] The purpose of the surveys was to determine how well the exceptional abilities of gifted and talented students were being accommodated in Newfoundland schools. The second survey (Hartman, 1987a) yielded results which were sufficiently representative to constitute a reliable overview. First, it was established that approximately 7,000 of the 140,000 students attending Newfoundland schools are gifted students. Then, the principal of each school in the Province was surveyed to determine how many of these students were receiving differential educational provisions, the types of provisions that were available, and, if such provisions were not available in particular schools, the reasons why they were not available. An exceptionally high survey return rate of 80.3 percent supports the contention that the results reported for the schools that participated in the survey are representative of the entire population of Newfoundland and Labrador schools.

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[1] Goguen is incorrect in part. In Newfoundland, gifted students were added to the existing policy governing Special Education, but it is true that, despite the recommendations of two advisory committees on the subject, no specific policy for gifted students has been adopted.

[2] The author has received information about seven new programs that have begun since the 1987 survey was conducted. Three of these programs are comparable to the most comprehensive of those noted in that survey.

Survey respondents indicated that differential educational provisions as outlined on the survey protocol were available for gifted students at 43 of the 499 schools represented in the survey. **This value suggests that some form of differential education is available for gifted students in only 8.6 percent of the Province's schools**. However, this estimate may be spuriously high because it is unlikely that 8.6 percent of the 155 principals who did not return the survey represented schools that were providing differential education services for gifted students.

Among the 43 schools reporting differential provisions for gifted students, most limit them to a subset of the grades taught in the school. As well, the data indicate that these provisions are more readily available in the primary and elementary grades than they are in the junior and senior high school grades.

Information about the number of years services for gifted students have been available at each school indicated that while some schools have offered such services for four or more years, approximately half the schools have offered them only in the last three years. It is likely that this change is due to the increased emphasis on the education of gifted students that has occurred internationally over the past ten years.

Teacher nomination is the most frequently reported method of identifying gifted students and it is also rated as the most important method. Multi-component identification procedures were reported for most of the 43 schools offering differential provisions; however, over half of these schools employ methods that evaluate only one domain of behaviour, the academic domain.

The survey data indicated that the responsibility for identifying gifted students was assigned to the classroom teacher, principal, and counsellor, in that order. Frequently, the responsibility was shared among these three persons.

The particular instructional components modified to create the differential educational provisions reported are, in order of importance, the content, mode, rate, and learning environment. Several schools reported simultaneous manipulation of more than one instructional component; typically, content, rate and mode.

Relatively few schools (15 of 43) reported the use of acceleration to accommodate gifted students. Among those that employ the practice, grade condensation, grade skipping, and advanced placement are the types of acceleration most frequently reported.

In contrast, 38 of 43 schools reported the use of enrichment to accommodate gifted students. Most frequently these schools employ both vertical and horizontal enrichment.

By far, the delivery systems most used to provide differential education were those that maintained the organization of the conventional classroom; specifically, regular classes, independent study, and within-class ability clustering. While many other delivery systems were reported, most of which occurred outside the conventional classroom, the frequency of their use was relatively low. It was also noted that most of the schools reported that they used more than one delivery system to offer their differential educational provisions.

Identification of the school employee who was primarily responsible for the education of gifted students indicated that in 75 percent of the schools concerned it was the classroom teacher. Other employees reported, but much less frequently, were the social studies coordinator, special education teacher, and principal. Only two schools reported the involvement of a coordinator for gifted students. While several combinations of employees were reported to be responsible for gifted students, over half of the schools reporting employee responsibility assigned it entirely to the classroom teacher.

What does all this mean for a single gifted student and his or her parents?. If we simultaneously consider two of the observations reported above, we can answer the question. First, while 8.6 percent of the surveyed schools offer some form of differential education, most of these schools offer this education at only some of the grade levels taught. On average, for any particular grade level only 2.16 percent of the participating schools offered some form of differential education -- and this value did not include 155 schools in which it is likely that the figure is even lower. This means that for a particular gifted student enroled at a particular grade level in a Newfoundland school, the probability that he or she will receive some form of differential education is extremely low. At best, this student has about two chances out of a hundred that he or she will pick one of the very few schools that offer such services and then be lucky enough to be in the particular grade at which the service is offered at that school. If we combine this statistic with that used to determine the number of gifted students already enroled in Newfoundland schools, we find that of the 7,000 gifted Newfoundland students, approximately 150 are receiving some form of education designed to accommodate their exceptional potential, but, more importantly, **6,850 are not**.

### Feasible Educational Provisions for Newfoundland's Gifted STUDENTS

For more than a decade the author has worked in a number of capacities to develop educational services for Newfoundland's gifted students. While there have been an encouraging number of developments at the teacher, school and school board levels, the results of the author's 1987 survey and the information provided in the many briefs submitted on this topic clearly indicate that Newfoundland's gifted students are not now adequately served. Why not? While most of the briefs submitted contend that in some way the government is responsible, and some briefs go so far as to identify the agents thought to have failed to act responsibly, reflection on a decade of experience suggests that the problem is much bigger and much more complex; but, its essence is that **the educational needs of most gifted students are not routinely served as a regular part of the educational process**.

Ad Hoc Approaches to Educating Gifted Students. Presently, if Newfoundland's gifted students are fortunate enough to be enroled in one of a very small number of schools that attempt to serve their needs, and if the gifts of these students are of the type/s and level/s served at that school, they are identified as gifted and said to be in need of some form of special or differentiated education. To obtain the resources necessary to provide this service, either these students are regarded as bellwethers that indicate that the curriculum is lacking for all students or they are declared exceptional and in need of special education. To avoid the attendant difficulties of accelerating students, the type of educational accommodation most frequently provided is enrichment. To provide this service in a manner that is feasible, enrichment opportunities are provided either for every student in the school or for only those students who demonstrate that they are exceptionally able learners. In the first case, unless enrichment is implemented in accord with a recognized enrichment model the "whole school" approach typically fails to meet the needs of both those students who need enrichment and those students who do not. In the second case, enrichment for just the exceptional students typically involves withdrawing them from their regular class and congregating them in a special enrichment class for part of their educational program. In this class, the students are typically taught as a group and the subject matter may include any of a very large number of topics that might be selected as appropriate enrichment. While this practice nicely meets the special needs of some gifted students, it fails others. The difficulty is that it is a group solution to an individual difference. Gifted students differ in all but one of the ways all students differ. They are alike only in one respect; that is, their exceptional ability to learn. But, even that ability is both domain specific, and within domains, discipline specific. Academically gifted students are different from psychomotorically gifted students, and within these domains, gifted mathematicians differ as much from gifted writers as gifted sprinters differ from gifted dancers. In short, to be optimally effective, curriculum differentiation for gifted students should be domain and discipline specific.

While programs of these types are certainly better than nothing, they create a number of problems for gifted students and discourage educators from including education for the gifted in the mainstream of the schooling process. And, lest he be accused of being a hypocrite, the writer readily admits that during the past decade he both recommended such programs and actively worked with a number of school boards to establish them. In fact, it was only as a result of first-hand experience over an extended period of time that many of these problems became evident. Furthermore, it is only as a result of this experience that it is now possible to identify some of these problems and suggest solutions. In this sense these programs made an important contribution to the development of education in the Province, but it is now time to learn from our experience and better meet the educational needs of our able learners.

Ad Hoc Approaches Present Problems. The crux of the problem is that giftedness is a construct that educators have borrowed from psychology. Unfortunately, the construct is still at such a rudimentary level of development that there are numerous definitions associated with it. In fact, so many that there is now a publication which has organized the many different definitions into five major types (Stankowski, 1987). Since a definition is the cornerstone of any educational program for gifted students, the confusion caused by the uncertainty surrounding the definitions invariably leaves any program open to charges that the identification and selection processes were subject to errors of either false inclusion or false exclusion -- or both. Furthermore, the various types of giftedness defined make it possible to confound the selection and treatment phases of a gifted program; e.g., selecting intellectually gifted students for advanced academic courses.

Another problem is that the giftedness construct focuses on aptitude while educators focus on achievement. Aptitude is of the future, a promise of accomplishment; while achievement is of the past, a promise fulfilled. For some unknown reason too many educators have been persuaded that for identifying gifted students, measures of achievement, particularly academic achievement, are not as valid or reliable as measures of aptitude, especially intellectual aptitude. As well, too many educators would readily dismiss the results of their own assessment of student learning when it happens to conflict with the results from standardized tests. They too quickly forget that they have likely spent many hours teaching their students and coming to know a great deal about the intellectual, academic, creative, social, artistic and psychomotor abilities of each one. They also forget that they often teach content that is new to all the students and that each is given a equal chance to learn before he/she is evaluated. Also forgotten to often is that teachers are professional educators who have typically completed one or more measurement and evaluation courses, constructed and marked many tests and assignments, and been responsible for assessing the academic achievement of a very large number of students. In short, teachers underestimate the value of their evaluation. They too readily defer to evaluation information provided by standardized measures which typically occupy only a brief interval of time, contain questions that students may or may not have had an opportunity to learn, and which relegate motivational and creativity differences into the realm of measurement error. While these measures also have several unique strengths that will help teachers better assess students, they cannot and should not replace the evaluations of teachers.

An Alternative Approach to Educating Gifted Students. The many problems noted above suggest that it is time for a big change in thinking about the education of gifted students. The history of programming for these students is to serve first those who are most exceptional because theoretically they should be experiencing the greatest need (Witty, 1958). Indeed, the reports of both the first and second ministerial advisory committees adopted this principle, and, generally speaking, this has been the direction taken by school boards here and elsewhere. While researchers' arguments indicate that the incidence of giftedness falls somewhere between the 70th and 99th percentiles for any of six domains of human behaviour, most of the programs that have been developed have identified for participation only those students who score above the 94th percentile on one of the six dimensions, intelligence (Marland, 1971). This practice has the effect of serving only a very small number of the gifted students who attend school. It does not serve those who are just as gifted but are so in the five domains of human ability not included in the process (Taylor, 1978). More importantly, it does not serve the very many whose levels of giftedness regardless of domain fall below the chosen value. From the perspective of doing the greatest good for the greatest number, this approach is backward. It fails to serve very many more gifted students than it serves.

It seems that a much better method would be to approach the task from the other direction by carefully determining which domains and what levels of human ability can be served by the various components of the school program. Excluding extracurricular activities, the school program is specifically designed to directly serve the academic domain and, up to particular levels of achievement, both the artistic and psychomotor domains. It also serves, albeit primarily indirectly, the intelligence, creativity, and leadership domains. In other words, if services for gifted students were included within each of courses of study offered in the curriculum, the needs of almost all gifted students would be met. Two exceptions are those few individuals who are so extremely gifted that their abilities outdistance the entire curriculum, and those who fail to use their gifts (gifted underachievers).

The task of meeting the needs of most gifted students would be much easier and more efficiently accomplished if the program was designed as an alternative part of the regular curriculum, the responsibility was assigned to the classroom teacher, and as much as possible the program was delivered in the regular classroom. It is helpful to remember that while gifted students are exceptional it is so because they have an exceptional ability to learn. As noted at the beginning of this paper, this exceptionality is a problem in school only when there exists a mismatch between a student's learning ability and his/her learning opportunity. Since the facilitation of learning is the *raison d'etre* of both the curriculum and the teacher, it follows that with assistance and under certain conditions both should be able to accommodate the needs of all but the most exceptionally-able learners.

The assistance necessary for the curriculum would be the development of appropriately-differentiated learning activities that can be delivered as self-directed instruction for each subject and each grade level. This task should be the joint responsibility of a curriculum designer, a program designer, evaluation consultant, and a consultant on the education of gifted students, so that the models developed will satisfy recognized program standards; such as, *The Standards for Programs Involving the Gifted and Talented*, published by the Council for Exceptional Children, and the *Canadian Guidelines: Preferable Future Practices in Programming for Gifted Learners* (Lipp and Casswell, 1990). Several countries have adopted variations of this practice. Perhaps the most extensively resourced program of this kind included the development of self-instructional enrichment packs that were distributed to classes throughout the United Kingdom by the Schools Council of Great Britain. Since those materials were developed, the developments in video and computer technology have created options that are extensive, cost effective and well-suited for both small schools and schools located in rural areas.

The assistance necessary for the teacher would be to have differentiated learning resources supplied which are largely self-instructional, self-motivating, and integrated appropriately with the curriculum. Additional assistance should include the provision of in-service or upgrading instruction in the development and use of differentiated educational programs and in the nature and characteristics of able learners.

The conditions attached to the delivery of differentiated instruction are: (1) Differentiated instruction would be titled Advanced Achievement (AA) and provided only for those students who demonstrate that they have mastered the learning activities occurring in the regular curriculum. The level of mastery considered appropriate is that set by Benjamin Bloom for Mastery Learning, eighty percent or "A" level performance (Bloom, 1971, p. 51); (2) AA units would not be assigned as homework or taken home for completion; (3) AA unit performance would be evaluated by the classroom teacher upon completion of the unit; (4) The marking scheme for advanced achievement would range from a "C" to an "A" grade; and (5) A separate column for AA grades be included in the report cards of all students.

The advantages of developing and delivering AA education in regular classes are numerous. Most important is that it offers the possibility of introducing the notion of mastery and the pursuit of excellence into every subject in the curriculum. Furthermore, the dual marking scheme accommodates Crocker's recommendation that programs "...be designed in such a way as to ensure that the goals of high participation rates and high levels of performance are complimentary (Crocker, 1989, p. 9). Advanced Achievement students can have their work evaluated and reported without "raising the ceiling" of the class grade distribution and reducing the value of the achievements of their classmates. In addition, the presence of a place for AA marks on report cards would go a long way toward recognizing the outstanding achievements of students and informing parents that advanced achievement and educational excellence are integral parts of the educational program.

A program advantage is that it ties differentiated education to an overall educational plan and integrates it with the content of the curriculum. This is a considerable improvement over the "ad hoc" provisions that are often associated with whole-school enrichment and partial withdrawal programs, especially when one considers that the latter are typically offered at only a few grade levels. Two additional advantages of this program are concerned with identification procedures and teacher preparation. Because the program is integrated with both the curriculum and its evaluation, students identify themselves by means of their level of academic achievement. This means that only those who successfully master the content of the curriculum receive the privilege of attempting advanced work. It also means that the large amounts of time and money that are normally spent on identification are saved. This approach also accommodates individual differences within gifted students that are seldom accommodated by other approaches; for example, a student who is successful in mathematics is not expected to complete advanced work in language unless the work in that subject is also mastered. With current programs, this is not the case. Few of them can satisfy Kough's now classic administrative criteria for effective programs for gifted students (Kough, 1960). An additional benefit is that the self-instructional nature of this model is particularly well suited to being employed in a variety of educational settings and circumstances; in particular, small schools, rural schools, and multi-grade classrooms.

Finally, there are many advantages for the teacher. Unlike many programs for gifted students, classroom teachers are not excluded from this program. In fact, they "own" and operate it. Given that these teachers are usually experts in their subject, who could better manage it? Because the units are self-instructional, teachers are not overwhelmed with the need to attend to the special needs of gifted students; however, given the fact that this form of gifted education no longer takes the best learners from their classroom teachers and implies that their teaching is inferior, it is very likely that the combination of teacher expertise and pride in the accomplishments of one's students will be a natural incentive for teachers to learn a great deal about the education of gifted students. The last advantage is a major one. This type of giftedness is not a mysterious remnant of the God Genii which was once said to explain the mystery of the very rare occurrence of a genius (Terman and Oden, 1926). Instead, it relates entirely to human abilities that vary both within and between persons. Furthermore, these abilities are not fixed for life. They are sufficiently influenced by both study and practice that many students have an opportunity to enjoy the benefits of being able learners, as well as to learn that without continued effort the benefits are fleeting.

Costs? Of course! Nothing of value is free. The start-up costs of developing the AA units would be considerable. But, since these expenses would be largely front loaded, they would in a very short time be much lower than the costs of the whole-school enrichment, withdrawal and itinerant-teacher programs now operating in a number of schools. It would also be essential to hire consultants at the department and board levels. These persons would be responsible for the education of gifted students and conduct in-service programs with subject coordinators at the board level to make them familiar with the operation of the AA program. Despite these costs, once established, a program of this nature would be relatively inexpensive to operate. Certainly it would be much less expensive than it would be to finance the personnel costs of the many different kinds of programs for gifted students that either presently exist and will otherwise come to exist in the Province's schools.

To optimally develop and operate a program for gifted students that is integrated with the regular curriculum, it would help if the responsibility was divided between the Curriculum Development, Program Development, Evaluation, and Special Services Divisions of the Department of Education. Each division would be responsible for its particular part of the Advanced Achievement program. The involvement of the Curriculum and Program Planning Divisions is essential because the Advanced Achievement program is an extension of the regular curriculum. The Evaluation Division could be especially helpful with establishing the dual mark system and recommending evaluation practices that would "buy" free time for advanced achievers. Special Services should continue to be involved with gifted students, but in a special way. It was noted above that the Advanced Achievement program was not appropriate for all students. Two exceptions to this plan would be the extremely gifted and gifted underachieving students noted above. Students in both these groups would very likely require assistance from special services personnel. Extremely gifted students would benefit from appropriate levels of special service that would be determined by specialists in that area. In fact, many of the educational programs noted in the literature on gifted students are expressly designed to accommodate very high levels of giftedness. Underachieving gifted students would also require the assistance of special educators, but their assistance should first focus upon raising academic achievement to an acceptable level, then, and only then, introducing advanced achievement opportunities to raise achievement to levels that are commensurate with students' abilities.

Finally, it would help a great deal if the term "gifted" was limited as much as possible in the school setting. Teachers do not make students gifted nor is giftedness a subject in the curriculum; therefore, in school the term is little more than an ill-defined label that stigmatizes students (Rimm, 1986, p. 84). For similar reasons, June Cox recommends the term "able learners" (Cox, Daniel, and Boston 1985), but this term, while better because it is specifically attached to learning, still implies that one either is or is not an able learner. A better strategy for educators may be to refer to the performance level of students or to the programs in which they are enroled; e.g., "A" students or "Advanced Achievement" students, respectively. Both these terms convey the notion that these students have earned these designations by virtue of their academic achievement which is, after all, the principal purpose of school.

## Hospitalized and Home-bound Students

Valerie Royle

### Hospitalized Students

The hospital environment can be a traumatic, unsettling experience for children but the normalcy associated with schooling has proven to be a positive factor in adjusting to hospital life, overcoming boredom and facilitating the healing process (ACCH, 1977).

Hospital teachers face a role much different from a regular classroom teacher in that their student body changes daily as children are admitted to and released from hospital; confinement to a ward for 24 hours causes boredom to peak in children; depending on the size of the hospital, multi-grading situations are common; children are emotionally upset due to their accident or illness and may be physically uncomfortable or in pain; and, frequent disruptions for medical ministrations are the norm. Given this complicated and challenging environment, Paddy Wiles in The British Journal of Special Education, December, 1988 lists four possible roles for a hospital teacher (all of which are fulfilled by the hospital teachers in this province):

1. the normal school role;
2. a situational role: a role connected with the illness of the child and his or her feelings about the hospital;
3. a social role: includes organizing of a normal school within a ward system and making relationships with the hospital staff, and
4. an outspan role: includes all forms of contact outside the hospital, such as making links with the child's own school, arranging home tuition for the child leaving hospital and visiting mainstream schools on the child's behalf.

Approximately 1,250 children requiring educational services are admitted to the Janeway hospital every year. Although other community and regional health care facilities also receive children, those who are seriously ill and require prolonged hospital care are usually transferred to the Janeway. The Department of Education administers an extensive hospital school in the Janeway Hospital - other health care agencies do not provide such a service since extended care patients are transferred to St. John's. However, prior to 1988, one teaching unit was allocated to the Grand Falls Hospital, one to St. Anthony and two to Corner Brook. These positions were discontinued by the Department in 1988 but have since been reestablished part-time by the affected local School Boards.

Teachers are involved in both bedside as well as classroom teaching. The Janeway provides the space while the Department of Education finances salaries and resource materials. One of twelve full time teaching units is allocated to special services, which includes work in the various clinics of the hospital, testing, teaching learning disabled children and establishing communication between the child's home and school. Another half unit is allocated for high school students hospitalized in 'adult' health care facilities around the city (i.e. Health Sciences, Grace General, St. Clare's, Miller Centre). The student population varies daily: in any given year between 1,000 and 1,500 students attend the Janeway School (Duff, 1992).

> *Teachers manage to stimulate children in hospital when most parents and unsupported volunteers fail to do so... For all children, of whatever age, teachers can make the world of the hospital an exciting and stimulating one, through which significant learning can take place. (Wiles, 1988).*

### Home-bound Students

Children may be receiving treatment at home prior to hospitalization, recuperating following their release from hospital, or may be generally 'sick' but not requiring hospitalization for a prolonged period of time. After a child has missed over a week or two of regular school, they are generally susceptible to falling behind their classmates academically, and are in need of educational services at home.

The School Service Division of the Department of Education has established a home-study program whereby a **maximum** of $150 per student per month will be provided to School Boards who apply on behalf of needy students. Recent communication with various School Boards across the province suggest that this allocation is too low to be effective. Tutoring fees range from $10 -$20 per hour, thus the home-bound student would receive, on average, a maximum of 10 hours of professional tutoring each month under this program. For some rural areas where there are problems associated with providing tutoring services to home-bound students in isolated communities it has been suggested that the Special Transportation Grant of $400 per month be combined with the home-study grant to provide better service to these students.

In some instances, boards have supplemented this program out of their own operating funds, while others have turned to school-based fund raising to supply the shortfall. Parents of the home-bound child also contribute financially when they are able. The school boards indicated that they have no written policy regarding the provision of educational services to home-bound students. They secure the home-study program offered by the Department whenever necessary.

One board supports a practice whereby the regular primary/elementary teacher assumes responsibility for the home-bound student on his or her own initiative - including home visits - without financial compensation. With the cooperation of parents and teachers this type of program is successful in ensuring the continuing education of a home-bound students. It is recommended that programs such as this be incorporated by this province's School Boards and further, that the Collective Agreement be modified to include responsibility to home-bound students.

Secondary students pose a greater challenge for the provision of home-bound services due to the wide variety of courses in which they are enroled. A homeroom teacher visiting the student at home could not meet all of the student's academic needs. Therefore, it is recommended that a home-peer-tutoring program be established at the high school level whereby volunteer students, through contact and coordination with their teachers, could provide tutoring and moral support to their home-bound classmates, thereby supplementing teacher visits.

Ideally, the government allocations to the home-study program should be increased beyond the present $150 per month student allocation. However, economic realities dictate that creative, voluntary initiatives be explored to supplement the provincial allocation. The recommendations contained herein are examples of such initiatives. [9]

### Summary

The juxtaposition of children with differing learning needs serves to create a formidable task even for the most experienced educator. The views presented to the Commission on how these diverse needs should be addressed are equally variable and sometimes emotionally expressed. Because there appears to be little lay agreement on goals, new directions will have to rest primarily on professional consensus about what is relevant, realistic and manageable.

This consensus should be built on strong administrative leadership, as well as sound methods of identification assessment and programming, strong relationships with advocacy groups, and founded on inter-departmental and inter-agency co-operation. The issues are complex and any resolution will require a strong commitment to the ideal of providing equal opportunity for al the children within our society.

## Five Case Studies

Craig Westcott

### Case Study #1. 'Please sir, may I have more soup.'

Three years ago, a local school suffered from a shrinking student enrolment and persistant absenteeism. Lately though, enrolment is up and students seem to be making extra efforts to get to school every day. Teachers are crediting the introduction of a hot lunch program for the turn-around.

"We can't prove that is the reason," says the school principal, who has seen enrollment climb from 164 students to 265 since the lunch program was implemented. "But based on our experience as teachers, that is what we believe is behind the change."

Before the lunch program began, he estimates, as many as one in seven students were suffering from hunger. The evidence was written in the children's pale faces and their generally listless behaviour. The hungry students had trouble concentrating on schoolwork and were more suceptible to colds and flus than other children. Some of them even got into fights over food in the school cafeteria.

Since the introduction of the hot lunch program, however, most of these children are performing better in their studies, while their behaviour has improved both inside and outside the classroom. Parents pay $2 per meal per child to participate in the program. Because the school is located in a socio-economic neighborhood where as many as 40 per cent of households with students are composed of single parent families, it isn't surprising that not all parents can afford to take advantage of the program. However, teachers and parents at the school have made sure nobody gets left out, and that children who really need the hot meals get them. Daily fare ranges from barbecued chicken to turkey soup with sandwich, to macaroni and cheese with brocolli. Milk is served with every meal.

"Hunger is a type of abuse just as physical and sexual abuse is," the principal says, reflecting on its effects on student behaviour and performance. Asked what he would do if the lunch program was taken away, he pauses for a moment and says, "I don't want to think about it."

### Case study #2. Coping with her father's drinking.

Everybody thought Alice was a perfectionist. The 13-year-old grade eight student was at the top of her class academically but never seemed satisfied with her performance. Teachers praised Alice for her high marks, but the girl always worried that they weren't good enough.

Alice was unhappy with her personal appearance and didn't have any friends. Her classmates gossiped that Alice's standards were too high - nobody was capable of measuring up. They found her too critical. Her world consisted of schoolwork and reading.

To the teachers, Alice didn't appear to have a problem. That's why they were so shocked when she tried to kill herself one Friday night by overdosing on her mother's tranquilizers.

It was during her recovery in hospital that Alice finally confessed her unhappiness. Her father was a drunk who terrorized the family both physically and verbally. Alice feels angry that her father drinks, but said she can't find a way to stop him. She is afraid to take any friends to her house, so she buries herself in her schoolwork where she finds some refuge. Alice said she will never be good enough at anything, no matter how hard she tries.

### Case Study #3: Prodigy of a broken home.

Johnny is 11 years old. Until recently he was looked upon by his teachers as an easygoing kid and a good student. Sports and music were among his favorite activities.

But something changed during Christmas. After the holiday break Johnny's teacher, Mrs. Jones, started noticing that her pupil was daydreaming a lot. He started skipping homework assignments, and his class work suffered. She also noticed that Johnny was spending more time alone, which was unusual for him. Even more surprising, Johnny was answering back teachers over the slightest matters. His gym teacher reported that Johnny wasn't trying as hard as he used to in physed class.

One day last week, Mrs. Jones asked Johnny to stay after school. Gently, she broached the subject of his deteriorating school work and the fights with his classmates. Confronted with the changes in his behaviour, Johnny broke down and cried. With a catch in his voice and a flush of shame on his cheeks he told the teacher that his parents recently separated.

"They're always fighting," he sobbed. "And its mine and Leslie's fault." Leslie is Johnny's younger brother.

The way Johnny sees it, his parents would still be together if he and his brother had behaved better. In a bid to reunite their parents, Johnny said he and his brother have stopped fighting. They also go to bed on time every night and do everything they are told. Reluctantly, he admitted that he is finding it hard to concentrate on schoolwork, but begged the teacher not to tell his parents because that will only make them madder at each other. He also asked her not to tell his classmates about his parents' separation because it would embarrass him.

"I'll try harder, Miss," he promised.

"It's not your fault, Johnny, that your parents have stopped living together," the teacher replied, with a catch in her own voice. "That's the first thing you have to realize. Your parents' problems have nothing to do with the way you and Leslie act, believe me."

A week later, the teacher registered the boy in a school councelling program for students suffereing from family break-up and death. The moral of the story, if there is such a thing, is that Johnny is one of the lucky ones. Because he had a teacher who cared enough to find out what was troubling him, and because his school had a program for children experiencing family-related problems, Johnny was helped. Lately his grades have started to go up again, and he is getting along better with his classmates. His parents, however, remain separated.

Other children like Johnny aren't always so fortunate. With no teacher intervention and no school-based programs to help them cope with major changes in their lives, these children's behavioural problems and poor school performance sometimes generate into a domino effect that chases them through the corridors of their school careers. The result can be a disaffected child who becomes estranged within the school system.

**Case Study #4: Part time principal, part time social worker.**

Charlie Norris's voice sounds tired on the telephone. It's 3:15 in the afternoon. While most people are taking a late afternoon coffeebreak or contemplating what they will do after work, Mr. Norris, principal of a St. John's elementary school, is beginning the second half of his day. "Fresh" from 10 periods of teaching, Mr. Norris is starting in on his administrative duties. These include returning a stack of telephone messages that accumulated while he was busy in front of the blackboard. One call is to a Royal Commission staff member who is seeking information about how schools deal with abused children. "Let me get out the file," Mr. Norris says tiredly, but obligingly. "Let's see, we've had seven, no eight cases in the last month. Most of it is physical abuse."

For this city principal and his teachers, the case load is fairly typical of what they deal with every month. The list reads like an anthology of inner city horror stories from a ghetto school in Detroit. It's hard to believe these things happened in St. John's.

Take the case of the kindergarten who came to school one morning with the imprint of a fork burned onto her face. Mr. Norris informed the department of social services, but the mother managed to convince social workers that the mark had been made by the little girl's brother. That was last year. Recently, the girl came to class one day with cigarette burns on the palms and backs of her hands, on her shoulder, and an impossible-to-miss welt on her face. This time when the child's mother claimed the girl had smacked into a door and fallen down the basement stairs a social worker wouldn't buy it. The girl was taken from her mother and placed in a foster home.

"Since then the child has turned around totally," says Mr. Norris, who noted that ever since the child had enrolled in school she had been a slow learner, emotionally withdrawn, and unable to even dress herself without help. Lately, the girl is getting along better with her classmates, and performing much better academically. "Now the mother has applied to get the child back," Mr. Norris says glumly. "We're worried."

Running his finger down the page, the principal stops at a case that was reported to him the night before. A Grade two student had been found by a neighbor scouring the ground for hours outside her home, looking for a pacifier for her baby sister. The temperature was way below freezing and the child wasn't wearing winter clothes. After looking into it, Mr. Norris said it was discovered the child had been carrying the pacifier into the house and dropped it. When the mother couldn't find it, she banged the girl's head off a wall several times before shutting her out into the snow to look for it. By the time the neighbor found her, a clot of blood had built up behind the girl's ear. The case is still under investigation.

The list goes on. Mr. Norris recalls the case of a kindergarten girl whom teachers noticed to be walking funny on some Monday mornings. Intriqued, a nurse telephoned the girl's mother and was told the child had problems with her feet. The real story emerged later during a school assignment in which the students were asked to draw a picture and base a story on it.

From her depiction, and a talk with the girl afterwards, teachers deduced the child was being sexually abused. The girl's parents had divorced and on some weekends she would stay at the home of the parent who never had custody of her. When staying there, she had to share a bed with a twenty-year-old man who was sexually assaulting her. The man was injuring her so badly that for a day or two afterwards she couldn't walk right because of the pain. The school informed social services about what they had learned and eventually the man was charged with sexual assault.

For Mr. Norris, dealing with the problems of these children is a daily duty, along with teaching, supervising teachers and tending to school administrivia. "You've got to be part principal, part social worker," he says with a rueful chuckle. But his commitment to these children is complete. Helping abused children at this age is crucial, he says, because the cost of failing to do so is high. "If you don't help them now," he explains "they will become your school drop outs later on."

**Case study #5. Satanism, suicide and a bureaucratic maze.**

Terry's mother had little control over her two children. Terry's older brother, John, though still a juvenile, was on the honour roll of the school of hard knocks with a long resume of brushes with the law while still a juvenile. Some people said John dabbled in Satanism. This question would come up later after Terry, 11, tried to kill himself. Terry had always admired his brother and emulated his tough guy swagger.

To his teachers, Terry was a child crying out for attention. He was disruptive and uncooperative in the classroom. He was violent on the playground. On the day he tried to kill himself, he had been suspended from school for disrupting the athmosphere of the school bus so much that the driver almost had an accident.

Like a lot of suicidal children, Terry's behavioural problems had been noticed by his teachers long before he tried to kill himself. They took the usual steps to do something about it - contacting the department of social services, arranging visits with a psychiatrist at the Janeway Children's Hospital, dealing with the law enforcement officials who would seek information about him at school.

Looking back on the event, now that Terry can no longer be helped, an educator who was close to the case said more might have been done for the child if not for the bureaucratic maze he wound up in. Sure there were a lot of agencies trying to help Terry, said the educator, but they were each acting in isolation: there was no coordination of effort among them. The saddest part about the whole affair, she added was that Terry probably didn't realize the finality of suicide and by the time he tried to turn back, it was too late.

The day Terry tried to kill himself he walked home because he had been kicked off the schoolbus. He went downstairs to the family room, and put one of his brother's heavy metal records with the suspected Satanic messages in the lyrics on the stereo turning up the volume as loud as it would go. He rigged a dog collar across a beam in the ceiling and stuck his neck in it. By the time his mother came downstairs to tell him to turn down the stereo the damage had been done: the leash had choked off the air supply to Terry's brain causing permanent brain damage. He will never go to school again.

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Chapter 11

# PERFORMANCE INDICATORS AND SYSTEM ACCOUNTABILITY

Robert Crocker

## I. INTRODUCTION

### Objectives

This report has been prepared at the request of the Royal Commission on the Delivery of Programs and Services in Primary, Elementary, and Secondary Education. An initial Commission proposal dated March 23, 1991, described the task as follows:

> To examine ways to improve the quality of schooling in the Province through the establishment of relevant performance objectives and attainment targets for all levels of education and the development of strategies to ensure that they are achieved.

The initial specifications called for an examination of indicators at various levels of the system and of various forms. As a starting point, the Commission listed the following as examples of the questions to be addressed in the report:

1. What are reasonable expectations for schools and should the expectations be the same for rural/urban and small/large schools?
2. Is there a need for national/international attainment targets?
3. To what extent should we have provincially normed tests?
4. Are there relevant and reliable achievement targets that measure all aspects of student performance including those within the affective domain?
5. Can we compare the availability of resources with student performance?
6. How do we hold decision-makers at all levels accountable?
7. What kinds of penalties/rewards should be attached to the accountability process?
8. Can a systems model be developed or must each level consider accountability independently?
9. Are term appointments for administrators an integral part of the accountability process?
10. Do we need a provincial level database?

These questions serve to give a sense of the scope of the report, and of the issues to be addressed. Nevertheless, it is not intended to base the report solely on an attempt to provide direct answers to these questions. Instead, a broader approach is taken, based on a more explicit mandate given to the consultant following discussions on the original proposal. Specifically, the Commission asked that the report focus on five outcomes, namely:

1. a rationale for the principle of educational accountability including accountability for what, for whom, and why;
2. specific indicators for assessing performance at all levels of the system;
3. a proposed model for a feasible and effective system of accountability;
4. implications associated with the introduction of such a programme; and

5. specific strategies and processes which would facilitate the introduction of such a programme in the province.

### Scope of the Report

Obviously, it is not possible to proceed directly to describe a fully developed accountability model applicable to the local setting. If such a model were available, there would be no need for the report. First, it is necessary to address a number of underlying issues important to the development of a model. These issues are examined through a review of literature, a process of consultation, and an analysis of local conditions. The next three sections are taken up with a discussion of these issues and a description of accountability and indicator systems being developed or implemented in various parts of the world. The final and most important part of the exercise is to propose a specific model which can be implemented in this province. This requires an examination of the kinds of data currently being compiled, an assessment of the value of these data in contributing to an indicator system, and a discussion of what needs to be modified, added, or integrated in order to create the desired system of indicators. All of these issues are taken up in the final section.

## II. NATURE AND SCOPE OF INDICATORS

### The Need for Accountability

Education is a vast enterprise, which demands a large share of public resources. Under any conditions, it would be reasonable for the public to ask whether it is getting value for the tax dollars which go to education. Under conditions of financial constraint, it is not surprising that calls for accountability in education become more pronounced. As demands on government services grow, and as the public becomes increasingly concerned with the tax burden, governments can be expected to look to their major sources of expenditures for means of reducing costs, while attempting to maintain services.

Aside from financial constraint, demand for increased accountability is driven by indications that educational quality is not at a desirable level, and indeed may have declined, at a time when education has become increasingly important for a nation's economic survival and development. While this concern is felt in many parts of the world, it is particularly evident in this province in light of recent evidence that there is a lag in educational achievement when our students are compared to those in other parts of the country or the world. This lag has persisted despite substantial growth in educational resources (relative to student enrolments), and despite gains in areas such as participation rates or the provision of special services.

At a more global level, it is becoming clear that the economic well-being of a nation is increasingly related to the level of educational attainment of the population. The common sense notion that the success of a society rests upon its natural resources and the hard work of its citizens has been well entrenched in the political and social thinking of a nation such as Canada. Evidence to support this thinking can easily be found in the rapid development of this country from a frontier wilderness to one of the most highly developed and economically successful parts of the world. Nevertheless, in the past couple of decades, it has become increasingly clear that the exploitation of natural resources can no longer be used as the primary basis for continued economic success. Equally important, the concept of the value of hard work has taken on new meaning as evidence accumulates that traditional sources of work, especially those associated with resource development and manufacturing have become less and less important. Replacing the traditional notions are the less well defined concepts that information and technology replace natural resources and that, adaptability, innovation, and the ability to generate and exploit information replace traditional labour as the basic driving forces for success.

All of the latter attributes are directly tied to the level and the quality of education available in the society. A heightened concern for educational attainment is evident in many recent influential reports, and is beginning to appear more frequently in the political rhetoric of the time and in debate on a wide range of national policy issues. The focal point of much of the concern has been unfavourable comparisons in both educational achievement and economic competitiveness between Canada and other countries, particularly Japan and other emerging Asian nations. All of this points to an economically driven demand for accountability in education, with business leaders coming increasingly to the forefront in calling for improvements in education and, not surprisingly, for the application of economic accountability concepts, such as productivity, competitiveness, and efficiency to the educational system.

Many questions of accountability and accountability criteria need to be answered as a system of educational indicators is developed. Not the least of these is the matter of measuring the outcomes of schooling. Although student testing is an established part of most educational systems, it is generally recognized that existing tests have many limitations, and that some of the most important educational outcomes are either too long term to be tested within the system or are not amenable to measurement with the testing technology at our disposal. Although the level of interest and activity in measures of educational outcomes has increased in recent years, there are many cautionary notes in the literature, most of which have to do with the use of test results for accountability purposes. Beyond this, concepts such as efficiency and productivity suggest that it is not only the outcomes of education which need to be measured, but also the resource inputs and the processes used to achieve the desired outcomes. A complete accountability system is thus expected to include indicators in each of these areas.

Unless we are to assume that accountability is primarily intended for negative purposes such as applying sanctions against poor performers, the ultimate and most important aim of any accountability system must be to improve the quality of education. Although the current concern is that the educational system is not adequate to changing societal pressures and demands, even if this were not so, there would be reason to insist on continual improvement. Just as growth rather than stability is a goal of economic activity, we must expect improvement in even the best performing system. No part of the educational world can assume that others are standing still. Furthermore, educational demands are likely to keep changing at an ever accelerating pace. In an information society, new ways must continually be found to process and utilize the ever increasing body of knowledge. One can therefore expect increasing pressures for improvement and change as time goes on.

## Educational Indicators

The term **indicator** is generally taken to mean a statistic which tells us something about the performance of a system. Perhaps the best known examples of indicators in everyday use are those which track economic performance. Interest rates, housing starts, unemployment rates, per capita income, and many other such figures are routinely reported as indicators of the state of local, national, or global economic conditions. Indicators are commonly reported in terms of comparisons between systems (e.g. U.S. versus Canadian interest rates), or trends over time. The latter are typically extrapolated to form predictions on the state of the economy. In fact, it is predictions which seem to occupy much of the economic news. Economic indicators, with their accompanying trends and predictions are routinely reported in the public media. This suggests that these indicators are both interesting and comprehensible to the public, as well as useful to policy makers or professionals in the field.

The idea that there are indicators of educational performance comparable to those of economic performance is relatively new. Although there have been many attempts to look at the relationship between educational inputs and outcomes, this has rarely been placed in the context of the overall performance of an educational system. Similarly student achievement measures have more often been used to look at the performance of individuals than at the system as a whole. Recent interest in educational indicators is clearly associated with concern for accountability. More globally, it may be argued that this interest is also associated with economic considerations such as global competitiveness and the increased importance of education to economic development. Under these conditions, it is not surprising that educators would turn to economic concepts to address some of the perceived problems of accountability.

## Uses of Indicators

What are the possible uses of such indicators? At a minimum, they serve to inform provide to those who might be interested some information about the state of some aspect of the world. In this sense, indicators may serve simply a **descriptive** function, essentially by putting numbers on certain broad concepts such as unemployment or student achievement. Such descriptions serve to give an overview of the system; a set of facts which can be quoted for convenience in discussing the system.

Presumably most people believe that high unemployment is bad and low unemployment is good, and that the reverse it true for student achievement. However, it is meaningless to talk about high or low unless we have some notion of what numbers are associated with each. A figure such as twenty percent may be high in some instances, such as unemployment, but low in others, such as percent correct on an achievement test. Thus, indicators can only have meaning when placed in some context. This introduces the notion of the **comparative** use of indicators. Comparison may take various forms, such as trends over time, departures from normal, differences between groups at a particular time, conformity with accepted standards, and so on. In fact, it can be said that a minimum condition for any statistic to be an indicator is that there exists some basis for comparison.

A third use of indicators involves the attempt to find causes or correlates of particular trends or outcomes. This introduces the notion of **analytic** uses of indicators. If unemployment is high, or student achievement is low, policy makers might be expected to want to know why these things are happening. Solutions to problems can only be found if possible causes of the problems can be identified. A particular concern in education, for example, would be the relationship between expenditures and outcomes in particular areas.

One further use of indicators, that of **prediction,** is worth mentioning because it is one of the most common uses in economics, even though this use has not been widely thought of in education. Tracking the performance of the economy over time, with a view to predicting future trends in interest rates, employment, stock prices, exchange rates and a host of other indicators is a large part of the business of many economic professionals, and is essential to the conduct of various kinds of business. Indeed, some businesses, such as stock market investing, are built almost entirely on the ability to make such predictions.

Although it is difficult to think of any direct educational parallels to stock market investing, there are some obvious uses of indicators as predictors. For example, it is useful to know whether particular trends, such as student achievement in a school, are going in the right direction. More generally, policy makers might wish to know whether a particular policy intervention, such as allocating more resources to an activity, has led to the desired results. Although establishing causal relationships in education, as in economics, is notoriously difficult, trends in indicators are likely to be as good a measure of causes as any other measures available.

Finally, we come to the use which is of most interest here, that of **accountability and decision-making.** Despite the other possible uses of indicators, it is fair to argue that the impetus behind the current emphasis on indicators comes from the demand for accountability. Accountability, in turn, is primarily concerned with educational policy decisions directed towards improving the system. Obviously, a minimum condition of any accountability system is that the appropriate indicators of performance be available. Although doubts have been expressed by some writers about whether currently available indicators are adequate for accountability purposes, we should keep in mind that policy decisions are being made every day, whether or not any indicators are available. It seems to make more sense to use whatever data might be available, recognizing any limitations which might exist in the data, than to make decisions from no information base at all.

### Who are the Users of Indicators?

**Policy-Makers.** Perhaps the most obvious group of users is made up of the elected representatives, major educational agencies, and senior professionals who are responsible for setting broad educational policy. In Canada, most policy-making occurs at the provincial level, although school boards also have a broad range of policy responsibilities. Given the international context of much of the work on indicators, and the global economic considerations which drive the move to make the education system more accountable, there is also an argument for some form of national approach to policy-making. As we shall see there are indications that educational indicators is a topic of increased national interest in Canada, both through the activities of the Council of Ministers of Education and through recent federal government initiatives.[1]

Policy-makers may use indicators in a variety of ways. Besides the obvious use in attempting to improve the system, indicators have been used to serve other policy objectives, such as encouraging competition between schools, or giving parents information on which they might make choices of schools for their children. Indicators may also serve a range of evaluative functions, from assessing teachers and schools to determining the impact of policy changes on the system.

**Researchers.** A great deal of research in education takes the form of small scale, short term surveys or experiments, many of which are too limited in design to shed much light on significant educational problems. In contrast, much research in areas such as economics or medicine is conducted through examining long term trends using data assembled on a national or international scale. Epidemiological studies in medicine are perhaps the best examples of how such data can be used to detect small but highly important relationships, such as those between smoking and lung disease or chloresterol and heart disease.

The development of comprehensive indicator systems can serve as a powerful tool for the researcher. The data on which indicators are based are gathered in the natural school setting rather then the contrived settings of many experiments. The capacity to gather such data and to keep track of the data over time is continually being enhanced with the development of computer systems which are both powerful and easily used even at a local school level. Analytical tools are also continually improving. The major limitation for research, as well as for other uses, is the validity and reliability of the data. In other words, the instruments available are not always capable of measuring what is important, and measuring it in a consistent fashion. As will be argued later in this report, measurement limitations represent the most serious impediment to implementing a comprehensive indicator system.

**The Public.** It sometimes tends to be forgotten that the citizens of the province and the nation are both the owners of the educational system and the consumers of its services. The level of public reporting on the performance of the educational system has traditionally been extremely low. Politically, the public can exert its control through the election of school boards and provincial governments. However, in the absence of information about performance, the public has little on which to base its decisions. Thus, public debate and electoral decision-making is often confined to local issues such as school closing, provision of particular services, or control by particular interest groups.

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[1] Obviously, any federal initiative in education has to be extremely carefully designed, particularly in the current constitutional climate, to ensure that there is no encroachment on provincial jurisdiction. Nevertheless, there are indications that setting national goals and standards, particularly as these relate to the economic performance of the nation, is one area in which the federal government could reasonably expect to be interested.

A comprehensive system of educational indicators can serve the public in much the same way that economic indicators have done. Recent reports about mathematics and science achievement, for example, suggest that there is considerable public interest in such matters. There has often been a tendency in education to withhold certain information, such as student IQ's or average achievement in a school, on the grounds that such information is easily misinterpreted. Again, it can be argued that demands for information are likely to increase, and that the public may have a right to certain information about the schools simply because it is the public which supports the system.

## Properties of Good Indicators

While an educational indicator is a statistic which tells us something about the performance of the system, not all statistics can qualify as indicators. Obviously the first requirement of any indicator is that it measure something that is judged to be important about the system. In the case of educational indicators, this is not always an easy matter, since there is no universal agreement on what is important. The case of standardized test results is a case in point. Results on such tests are perhaps the most commonly used indicators of the performance of the educational system. Yet there are many who would consider such results as trivial at best, and their use misguided at worst, especially if emphasizing such results leads to a narrowing of educational goals to those which can be measured by existing tests.

A recent study by the Rand Corporation for the U.S. National Science Foundation (Shavelson, et. al., 1989) identified eight basic criteria of a good indicator system. According to that study, indicator system should:

1. Reflect the central or core features of the educational system
2. Provide information pertinent to current or potential problems
3. Measure factors that can be influenced by policy
4. Measure observed behaviour rather than perceptions
5. Use reliable and valid measures
6. Provide analytic linkages among the indicators
7. Be feasible to implement
8. Address a broad range of audiences.

These criteria provide a fairly stringent test for any system of indicators to meet. Unfortunately, as we shall see, relatively few existing indicators meet such a test. This limitation has moved some writers (e.g. Kagan and Cooley, 1989) to argue that is premature to use indicators for accountability purposes. Nevertheless, this has not deterred policy-makers from moving in this area, as the review in the next section will show. Given the pressures for accountability, it is more likely that moves to improve the quality of indicators will be given greater impetus by policy requirements than by non-policy purposes such as description or research.

On a final note, indicators are generally thought of as being expressed only as numbers. Part of the problem of measurability arises from the fact that if something cannot be expressed as a number, it is sometimes dismissed as being unscientific and not amenable to comparison or analysis. It is necessary to remind ourselves that many areas of science, such as descriptive biology, anthropology, or even many aspects of medicine function largely without numbers, relying instead on written descriptions of phenomena. The same can be said for many areas of education. In fact, there are many who advocate replacing traditional test scores with more elaborate descriptions of what students can or cannot do at particular points in their education. In principle, a student's report card could consist of a compendium of what the student has done and a written statement (much like a judicial opinion, for example) of the student's capabilities. In principle, also, such information could be aggregated to tell us something about the system as a whole. Without underestimating the practical difficulties of such a task, it may be argued that such an approach could be an appropriate response to the criticism that important outcomes of education cannot be expressed as numbers.

## Units of Data and Analysis

The smallest unit about which we might want to report in education is the individual student. Indicators of individual student performance abound, ranging from standardized test scores, to system wide measures such as public examinations, to the grades given by teachers. Although no firm counts seem to exist, it is not far fetched to suggest that individual students can expect to be tested and graded hundreds of times throughout their school career. Whatever their limitations, such grades are clearly the most widely used indicators of student performance, especially in reports to parents, and in making judgements about the advancement of students through the levels of the system.

Generally, speaking, however, the term indicator is used to refer not to the performance of an individual, but to that of some part of the system itself. We expect to see indicators which would present in a concise way some measure of the aggregate performance of individuals in the system. Typically, the demand for the development of indicators comes from the desire to compare schools, school systems, or even larger units such as provinces or nations. Individual student data is far too cumbersome for this purpose. At the same time, the aggregate performance of students is the most obvious indicator of the performance of the system as a whole. We are thus led to a situation in which data may need to be **collected** at the student level but **analyzed and reported** at the level of some aggregation of students.

The fact that student performance indicators may exist at different levels leads to one of the most important points to be considered as part of an overall model of educational indicators, namely whether it is possible to make the same data serve more than one purpose. One of the striking features of the world of indicators at this time is that special purpose testing programs tend to be carried out in order to gather data at different levels. Thus, provincial, national, and international studies add their own instruments to the large amount of testing done in schools. Whether or not this has led to over-testing on a massive scale, it is certainly necessary to raise the question of whether it is possible to design a more integrated system.

Much of the recent impetus for the development of indicators comes from a desire to permit the assessment or comparison of the performance of schools. Student performance aggregated to the level of the school is obviously one such indicator, as long as comparative data on other schools are available. However, it is not the only one. Schools might be compared on a host of other factors such as physical facilities, scope of programs, qualifications of teachers, school spirit and morale, and so on. It is important to note that such factors are characteristic of the school itself, and are not aggregations of student data. Again, it is important for an indicator system to include those school level factors which meet the criteria of importance, validity, and reliability. It is also important to consider the purposes for which school level data might be used. Such uses might range from allowing parents to select schools which have high performance on indicators that they consider important, to evaluating school staff and administration.

Once we begin to aggregate data, it is possible to proceed through ever higher levels. The school district, the province, and the nation are commonly considered to be appropriate levels for comparison and judgement. Recent media discussion of interprovincial and international comparisons on basic literacy, and on science and mathematics achievement, illustrate that student data aggregated to these higher levels are of considerable interest. At the same time, it should be recognized that there are characteristics of school systems which might, in themselves, be usefully reported as part of an indicator system. Examples would be enrolment patterns, resources, and programs. A complete indicator system would have to include such measures.

**Inputs, Processes, and Outcomes**

In the main, when we think of indicators, the concern is with measuring the final products of the system. Literacy rates, achievement test scores, school retention rates, and the like readily come to mind when speaking of indicators. What is less obvious is that outcomes cannot be achieved without some investment of resources. Similarly, the process of education starts somewhere with students with particular abilities, interests, aspirations, and expectations. These may be termed the inputs to schooling. Furthermore, outcomes are arrived at through a complex set of activities conducted within the school setting, which we may refer to broadly as the processes of schooling.

At one level, it can be argued that inputs and processes matter little as long as we arrive at the desired outcomes. Again using the economic parallel, company shareholders are likely to be indifferent to the details of how the company's products are produced, or even to the kinds of goods involved, as long as they are eventually sold at a profit. This may also be true for the public, with respect to educational outcomes. Nevertheless, performance can be improved only if we make adjustments to the processes. For purposes of policy-making, this requires that we have ways of analyzing the processes involved in schooling, and that we understand the relationships between processes and outcomes.

Unfortunately, the latter is an exceedingly complex issue, which forms the basis for much of the research which takes place in education. We now know far too little about these relationships, and much research has had to be conducted through small scale and short term studies. It would be much more sensible to use data gathered as part of a comprehensive indicator system to examine the process/outcome relationship further, while also using the process data to describe more accurately what does happen in schools. In any case, a substantial and growing body of knowledge does exist on such things as desirable teaching practices. An indicator system should be capable of answering the question whether the best practices are being used within a particular system. Finally, some would regard particular processes as important in themselves, whatever their impact on outcomes. For example, society would likely find certain kinds of punishment unacceptable, or certain forms or teacher/child relationships desirable, whatever the impact of these on outcomes. Similarly, certain forms of interaction, such as the use of common forms of courtesy, can be regarded as outcomes in themselves.

On the input side, such measures as per-pupil expenditures are frequently used as indicators of resources devoted to education. It is interesting to note that the conventional economic arguments about cost-effectiveness seem to reverse themselves when examining such indicators. For example, unfavourable comparisons have frequently been made between per-pupil expenditures in Newfoundland and those in other parts of Canada, as if this indicator was, in itself, a measure of the performance of the system. From an economic perspective, high per-pupil expenditure could be taken as an indication that the system is inefficient, particularly if similar outcomes could be achieved at lower cost. This is the essence of the concept of cost-effectiveness. Instead, the inference is usually made that lower per-pupil expenditure yields proportionally lower values for some important outcomes, and hence that this is a sign of ineffectiveness of the system.

In order for anything to happen in education, we must have in place a basic infrastructure of buildings, administrative services, studetn support services, and programs. These are among the things bought with the tax dollars devoted to education. More important, educational processes are quite labour-intensive, necessitating the employment of a large corps of teachers and other professionals, as well as a somewhat smaller corps of support staff. All of these may be referred to as the inputs to the educational system. One of the main ways in which educational policy is carried out is by manipulating the use of these resource inputs. Changes in processes are often effected by such manipulation. For example, the large increase in resources devoted to special education services in this province over the past two decades might be expected to have had a major impact on the treatment of students with varous kinds of disabilities. Althought he overriding concern has been with student performance, another driving force behind the move to develop educational indicators has been the desire to find out if the large amount of public resources being devoted to education is being well used. In a time of financial restraint, concern for cost is increasing, and the ability of the public to pay for education is becoming increasingly stretched. Despite this, it is interesting to note that the concept of cost-effectiveness in the sense of delivering the maximum service at the lowest cost, seems not to have become established in educational thinking. For example, high per-pupil expenditures are much more likely to be treated as a positive than as a negative indicator of the effectiveness of the system

Some models of the educational system introduce a fourth component, typically referred to as **context** or **environment**. Included within this area are such things as student abilities, socioeconomic factors, overall demographics, and societal attitudes towards education. Such factors are obviously important, not least as determinants of the resources which are likely to be available, or the political pressures towards the development of particular policies. Certainly, in the context of comparing systems, these factors would have to be understood. Nevertheless, for the most part, these factors are not within influence of policy-makers, and hence cannot be manipulated in order to influence outcomes. Including such factors within an indicator model thus presents particular problems.

## An Indicator Model

The above discussion leads to a simple starting point for the development of a model of educational indicators. Essentially, the system may be thought of as a three stage model:

**INPUTS ⇒ PROCESSES ⇒ OUTPUTS**

Within each of these main areas, it is possible to identify hundreds of variables which may be used to differentiate students, schools, or school systems. As already indicated, however, not all such variables are potential candidates for inclusion in an indicator system. In order to elaborate the model, what is required is to be able to decide within each of the main categories what indicators meet the criteria of importance, validity, and reliability.

One such elaboration has recently been developed by the Rand Corporation (Shavelson, et. al., 1989). The Rand model is shown in Figure 1. A couple of important features of this model should be noted. First, the model identifies specific subcategories of indicators at each of the input, process, and output stages. Second, a set of proposed linkages among these indicator categories is identified, thus helping fulfil the requirement for understanding the causal relationships of inputs to processes and processes to outputs. Finally the model emphasizes that indicators are supposed to measure **quality**, particularly the quality of educational processes.

Although the elaborated model does help in identifying the types of indicators required within each main domain, the model is still lacking in specificity about individual indicators. To say that achievement is an outcome indicator is, in itself, an extremely broad statement. In what subject areas,and at what age or grade levels would achievement be measured? What levels of cognitive functioning should be assessed by achievement tests? What are acceptable standards or targets for achievement? All of these questions must be answered within a specific indicator system.

| Inputs | Processes | Outputs |
|---|---|---|
| Fiscal and other Resources | Curriculum Quality | Achievement |
| School Quality | Participation | |
| Teacher Quality | Instructional Quality | |
| | Teaching Quality | |
| Student Background | | Attitudes & Aspirations |

**Figure 1**. Indicators Model (Shavelson, et. al., 1989)

## III. NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

This section examines a number of specific projects and activities concerned with the development and use of educational indicators. Some of these, such as the IEA studies and the current OECD project, are international in scope. Others are specific to particular educational jurisdictions. One or two state indicator systems can, for example, be used to illustrate the nature of developments occurring in the United States. On the Canadian scene, the project currently being initiated by the Council of Ministers of Education (CMEC) warrants some attention because this province is an active participant in the project, and because it can be expected that any indicator developments in this province would have to capitalize on work being done nationally.

### The IEA Studies

Perhaps the earliest and longest lived activities on the international scene are the various comparative achievement studies conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Since the late 1960's long before the term indicators came into general use, this organization was engaged in attempts to measure achievement in certain basic subject areas and to publish international comparative results.

IEA is a loose organization of educational research agencies in a number of countries. Typically each member country is represented by a single agency, such as a national research centre. Countries such as Canada have been represented by more than one agency, reflecting the divided jurisdictions in education. Policy-making, and decisions on the conduct of particular studies rests with a General Assembly, which meets once a year. Typically, studies are organized by selecting an international coordinating centre, which, in turn, is responsible for finding agencies within the various countries to conduct the specific national studies which eventually yield the international data base. Participating countries agree to conduct their studies in accordance with specific standards designed to help ensure comparability on a basic core of tests and items. National centres are responsible for finding their own sources of funds, administering the instruments, analyzing their own data, and preparing national reports. The international centre is responsible for instrument development, general sampling and data collection standards, and preparing an international report.

The first major projects were conducted in the late 1960's, and reported several years later. Canada was not a participant in these studies, largely because of the lack of any body that could be considered to have a national educational mandate.[2] Canada's participation began on a small scale with the Second International Mathematics Study (SIMS) in the early 1980's, in which two provinces, Ontario and British Columbia, participated (and were reported as separate countries). It was not until the Second International Science Study (SISS) a few years later that full Canadian participation occurred. This was accomplished through a consortium of university-based centres, which were relatively free from the constraints of provincial educational jurisdiction.[3]

One aspect of the evolution of the Second International Science Study in Canada is worth recounting because it exemplifies very clearly the changes in thinking about comparative educational indicators which occurred throughout the 1980's Before the SISS even began, a large scale study of science education in Canada had been initiated by the Science Council of Canada. One of the conditions imposed by the provinces on the latter study was that no achievement testing be conducted. When, a couple of years later, the SISS researchers approached the provinces, testing was allowed, but with the condition that results at the provincial level not be reported. The first SISS national and regional results, which appeared in 1985, received little attention. Even the researchers themselves professed little interest in achievement.

All of this changed in 1988, when a Newfoundland Task Force investigating problems of low achievement in mathematics and science requested the ministries of education in all provinces to reconsider their earlier position on reporting provincial results. This time all provinces consented, and a complete reanalysis was undertaken. The results of this analysis were reported in a background document for the Task Force (Crocker, 1988), and subsequently in a report prepared for the Economic Council of Canada (Crocker, 1990). In the meantime, individual provinces were also requesting more detailed analysis of their own results (e.g. Connelly, 1987). These later analyses have received much more widespread attention, including many reports in the national media ( most recently the Globe and Mail, September 14, 1991; The Journal, CBC Television, October 1, 1991).

While the specific results are not of direct concern in this report, it should be pointed out that the pattern in Canada is generally one of higher achievement in the Western than in the Eastern provinces, and higher achievement in English than in French Canada (with francophones outside Quebec faring particularly poorly). Internationally, Canadian students rank quite highly at the grade five and nine levels (fourth and sixth respectively among seventeen countries), but rank much lower at the grade 12 level

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[2] Most countries do have at least one national centre for educational research. The National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (NFER), the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER), and the National Institute for Educational Research (NIER) in Japan are typical examples. The United States has a network of regional educational laboratories, as well as a variety of nationally supported special purpose research centres. No comparable organizations exist in Canada.

[3] The original study, which involved an analysis of policies and practices across the country, was conducted as a single integrated project, with research centres in Eastern, Central and Western Canada. In the testing phase, the study was divided into two, representing Anglophone and Francophone Canada, with results reported separately at the international level.

(as low as tenth or twelfth among thirteen countries, depending on the specific test. The latter results are partly explainable by Canada's high participation rates and lack of specialization in science programs at the high school level, compared to some other countries. As for Newfoundland, the results show this province as among the lowest on almost all measures.

This account illustrates the increased appetite for comparative indicators, and the dramatic shift in thinking about the value of such indicators that has occurred in recent years. Unfortunately, it also indicates a somewhat disturbing tendency to use whatever results are available, without giving much thought to the limitations of the data. For example, not only were the SISS data well out of date before they came to public attention, but also the original restrictions on provincial reporting led to sampling decisions which make such results less reliable than they might have been.

An important limitation of the IEA studies is also illustrated by the history of the SISS. Such a loosely structured organization is simply not in a position to carry out its work with the speed necessary to respond to changing requirements and expectations. IEA studies have typically taken from five to eight years to make the international comparative results available. The funding structure, the lack of official status, the reliance on independently conducted national studies, and many other barriers exist to making the studies proceed with greater dispatch. For an example of an alternative approach to such work, we now turn to a more recent project, whose origins lie in a long-standing achievement testing program in the United States.

### The International Assessment of Educational Progress (IAEP).

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) is a large scale achievement testing program which has functioned in the United States since the late 1960's. The program was originally designed to provide benchmark data on achievement in a number of subject areas, and to permit state by state comparisons of achievement levels (Greenbaum, 1977). At the time of its origin, it appears that no thought was given by NAEP organizers to the question of how the achievement of American children compares with that of those in other countries.

The decision of NAEP to go international is yet another illustration of changing attitudes towards educational indicators throughout the 1980's. Whatever their limitations, there is little doubt that the results of IEA studies, which consistently placed the United States among the lowest achieving countries, has been a major source of influence on American educational thinking. No doubt the shift is also closely linked with the loss of American economic preeminence and the perception that there is a connection between the high levels of educational attainment shown by the Japanese and the growing economic power of that country. Americans have tended to state their educational goals in terms of achievement. The current preoccupation with international comparisons reflects a stated goal of making the United States the highest achieving country by the year 2000.[4]

In this climate, considerable pressure obviously exists to extend American indicator programs to the international scene. NAEP first entered this arena in 1988, with a pilot project in five countries and four Canadian provinces (with two language groups in three provinces), using tests in science and mathematics Results indicated that students in Korea consistently outperformed those of any other country. Among the Canadian provinces, British Columbia tended to perform near the top on most measures. Ontario (English) and Quebec (English and French) generally fell in the middle range. New Brunswick (English and French) and Ontario (French) performed worse than average on most measures. Interestingly, students in the United States were among the worst performers on almost all measures.

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[4] This goal was enunciated by President Bush at the end of an **educational summit** of state governors held in October, 1989. This initiative has since become known as the **America 2000** initiative.

In general, these results were consistent with those found for the IEA studies. This suggests that results of comparative studies of this sort can be treated with some confidence. It also suggests that there has been little change over the past decade in the relative standing of countries. As for Canadian provinces, despite limited participation in the IAEP, the pattern among those provinces participating was almost exactly the same as that found in the Second International Science Study.

A second, more ambitious, project conducted in 1990-91 is just being completed. In this study, nine Canadian provinces, and 20 countries participated. Canadian participation, unlike that of any other country, continues to be based within provinces, although the current study is comprehensive enough to permit reasonably valid national results to be reported. Canadian participation was coordinated through the various provincial ministries of education, giving the study more of an official character than was the case for the IEA studies. such participation clearly marks another step in the transition from opposition to comparative testing to full scale support.

One of the main difficulties with such studies is that they are simply added to the regular testing programs conducted within the various jurisdictions. This is not a serious matter as long as samples remain small and the studies few. However, as pressure mounts for more comprehensive indicators, and as a variety of agencies at different levels become involved, there is a clear risk that the cost of collecting and handling data, and the burden that this places on the school program, will become too great. Before this happens, it is necessary to consider how a more integrated approach might be taken. This is one of the major issues to be addressed in developing a model for use in this province. In fact, there are no plans to repeat the IAEP, although further international assessments are underway by IEA. Results of the IAEP 1991 project will be released in early 1992.

### The OECD Indicators Project

Completing our discussion of international developments, a brief description is given of a recent project initiated by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). This organization, whose members include most of the developed countries of the world, has long been interested in education in the member states. Early reviews of the education systems in various countries received considerable attention. A 1976 OECD study of education in Canada, for example, was one of the first to note the virtual complete absence of a federal presence in education, and to point to the lack of a national agenda for education in this country, something which is not characteristic of other countries, including those with provincial or state jurisdiction.

The current OECD indicators project is by far the most ambitious undertaking of this sort conducted to data. Five international networks have been established, in the following areas:

- Student demographics
- Student outcomes
- School environment
- Costs and resources
- Users' attitudes and expectations (Botanni, 1990)

Each network is chaired by a member country, which is responsible for guiding the work, and providing the main sources of expertise and funding to allow the network to function. The initial phase of the project (1988-90) was mainly concerned with identifying the kinds of indicators which might be established, and determining the means by which the necessary data can be gathered. It is not intended that OECD actually collect data, in the manner of IEA or IAEP. Rather, the intention is to provide a framework within which to examine the quality and relevance of educational indicators, to assess the comparability of data generated within the member countries, and ultimately to improve the quality and comprehensiveness of data used in international comparisons.

It is instructive to examine briefly the work of one of these networks. Network A has been concerned with indicators of student achievement. As might be expected, the lead country in this network is the United States. In the first phase of its work, completed in 1990, three general areas for the development of student outcome indicators were identified:

- student attainment (school completion rates)
- student achievement in cognitive and non-cognitive areas
- student activities following completion of school

In the second phase, currently under way, the focus was narrowed to the student achievement area. In particular, the work was confined to the development of an analytic framework for achievement outcomes, and of standards and criteria for constructing indicators. The starting point for this framework was a survey of assessment and examination practices in 17 member countries (Binkley, Guthrie & Wyatt, 1991). The latter work was a major contribution in its own right, since few such international summaries of educational practices exist. At the same time, the survey pointed to some of the difficulties in extracting comparable indicators from existing data sources.

In the end, the network proposed that three key indicators of student achievement be used:

- comparative distribution of achievement scores
- the learning/teaching ratio (what students have learned relative to what has been taught)
- between school and between classroom variation in achievement scores. (OECD, 1991)

These indicators were chosen because they appear to meet the criteria of broad policy interest and comparability, and because they are clearly related to the productivity of the educational system. It is important to note that these indices go beyond simple comparisons of achievement levels, and look at achievement in relation to curriculum as well as the uniformity or variability of achievement across the educational system. Obviously, a highly productive system would be one in which high achievement levels are relatively uniformly spread across the system, and in which most of what has been taught is actually learned.

The question of how the data required to derive these indicators would be gathered remains unanswered. None of the existing international studies have provided data of the quality and scope needed, nor can data gathered within national assessment programs be used. This seems to suggest the need for yet another international effort, much more comprehensive in scope than previous ones (though perhaps confined to OECD countries). Technically, such an effort could probably be mounted, although its cost would be exceptionally high compared to the funding levels of previous international studies. The main problem is whether further proliferation of testing programs is a reasonable prospect compared, say, to an effort to increase comparability among existing national programs.

### Activities in the United States

Although concern with accountability and the development of educational indicators is worldwide, this area has been given particular impetus in the United States through a strong accumulation of evidence of a decline in educational standards in that country, and through the work of several prestigious commissions on the state of education and its role in restoring (or maintaining or achieving, depending on one's point of view) American military, economic, and cultural preeminence in the world. The first, and perhaps most influential of these commissions, the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), in its widely cited report entitled **A Nation at Risk**, decried the **rising tide of mediocrity** which appeared to be engulfing the schools of the nation, and pointed to a variety of unfavourable comparisons between American education and the systems of other countries to make the point. Since that time, even more evidence has accumulated (e.g. IEA, 1988), to reinforce the low achievement levels of American schools.

Throughout the 1980's, the concern generated by such evidence has led to a wide variety of activities designed to improve the situation. A few examples will be given here to illustrate the nature of such activities, as they relate to the problem of developing indicator systems.

At a national level, the concern has manifested itself in efforts to find indices to allow comparison of schools, school systems, and even states. Despite the existence of several testing programs that were national in scope, including NAEP and the Scholastic Aptitude Test (used for college admissions), no comparative data between states had been published until the mid-1980's. In fact, NAEP was implemented under the specific understanding that state by state comparisons were not to be made, despite the fact that the original conception was based upon exactly such comparisons (Greenbaum, 1977).

All of this changed in the aftermath of the **Nation at Risk** report. In 1984, the U.S. Department of Education released for the first time what has become known as the **Wall Chart** of state comparisons. The published indicators included such variables as pupil-teacher ratio, expenditures per pupil and graduation rates. Importantly, state by state comparisons of student achievement on two commonly used tests, the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and the American College Testing (ACT) test were also published. As might be expected, the publication of such comparisons was strongly criticized. According to Odden (1990), there were three reasons for the criticisms; the breaking of a tacit understanding that states would not be compared, the lack of involvement of state political and educational leaders in developing the indicators, and the lack of validity and reliability of the data upon which the indicators were based. The latter criticism was directed particularly at the use of SAT and ACT scores, because those writing these tests are self-selected, and because the tests were designed to serve the much narrower purpose of selecting students for college entrance. Despite attempts to adjust for self-selection, and to develop formulas for equating SAT and ACT scores, the criticism has remained.

Not surprisingly, the concerns over SAT and ACT have led to calls for the expansion of NAEP to allow for state comparisons (Wainer, Holland, Swinton, & Wang, 1985). These calls were obviously heeded, as in 1988 Congress authorized the NAEP to conduct, on a trial basis, voluntary state-by-state comparisons of mathematics achievement (Phillips, 1991). More than 30 states have agreed to participate in this trial, with the first results expected in 1992. Criticism has continued, (e.g. Koretz, 1991) based on both technical and policy arguments. Given the increased public and political appetite for such comparisons, however, and the growth of international interest in educational outcomes, it is likely that state comparisons will become a standard feature of NAEP in the future. As we shall see, parallel developments are taking place in Canada, which in turn can be expected to have major implications for what will have to be done at the local level.

Again, partly in response to the Wall Chart of the U.S. Department of Education, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), an organization of the chief educational officers from each state (roughly comparable to the Council of Ministers of Education in Canada), has established a State Educational Assessment Center. This center has become increasingly active in producing comparable data across the states, and in attempting to address problems in the development of indicators (Odden, 1990; Selden, 1988). Following from this initiative, the U.S. Department of Education has also convened an indicators panel to help further the improvement of the Wall chart, and to develop a national indicator system.

All of this work was given considerable impetus following the October, 1989 **Educational Summit** of state governors, convened by President Bush. The summit launched the United States on a quest to become the world leader in educational achievement by the year 2000. the **America 2000** initiative, as this has become known, affirmed a commitment to developing performance standards and accountability procedures to measure progress towards that goal. All of this is reminiscent of earlier politically driven U.S. educational efforts, most notably the post-Sputnik impetus given to curriculum development by similar concern over the perceived loss of American military and technological superiority. Like other such efforts, a possible outcome may be that the stated goals are not met, but that the spinoff effects have substantial impact on similar developments worldwide. there is little doubt that the latter effects are already being felt, and that U.S. psychometric capabilities, in particular, can be expected to influence the development of outcome indicators throughout the world.

In addition to developments at the national level, many individual states have launched their own indicators projects. Much of this activity has been driven by state legislatures, which in recent years have approved a large number of measures designed to increase educational accountability and to improve performance. State level activities are of interest because they form the closest American parallel to what we are ultimately aiming for, namely the development of a provincial indicator system. One or two examples will suffice to give a flavour of the nature of state initiatives.

In 1985, the Missouri State Legislature enacted the Excellence in Education Act, which included provisions for expanded student testing requirements, among many other initiatives.[5] Following from this, the State Board of Education undertook to develop an indicator system to monitor the effects of the Excellence in Education Act on the quality of education in the state. The developmental work was contracted to the Centre for Policy Research in Education at Rutgers University and to the Educational Testing Service, a large private testing firm which is responsible, among other things for the SAT and the NAEP.

The developmental group used as its starting point the Shavelson et. al. (1987) model. As described in the previous section, this model is intended to incorporate into a unified system a variety of indicators of educational inputs, processes, and outcomes. Such a model is designed to go beyond descriptive and comparative uses and allow causal relationships to be examined. The model is based on the idea that policy makers need to know not only how the system is performing but what policy related variables should be manipulated to yield the greatest improvements.

There is no need to elaborate here on the specific variables identified within each of the components of the model. This will be done in detail in a later section. What is important is to note some of the conclusions reached by the developmental group and an advisory committee on matters of what data should be reported and at what levels. This issue is at the heart of some of the political problems which inevitably surround the implementation of indicator systems.

First, the Missouri group noted that basic data which forms the basis for indicators may be collected at different levels, depending on the indicator. The levels of data collection may range from the individual student, as in the case of test scores, to schools, districts, or the state as a whole. An important question to be answered is at what level the data should actually be reported. For example, test scores need not be reported at the student or school level in order to be useful as outcome indicators at the district or state level. In fact, serious issues of privacy and confidentiality would be raised if individual scores were reported publicly. However, it is reasonable to ask whether a student's score should be reported to parents, if the test in question is not designed for grading or graduation purposes but only for purposes of aggregation as an indicator. Similar difficulties arise in reporting school or district level results, particularly in the absence of other indicators which might account for differences between the units reported.

Since there was apparently no consensus in Missouri on such matters, it was recommended that scores on the major state-wide test (the Missouri Mastery and Assessment Tests) not be reported by schools or districts. It was recommended, however, that data be entered into the indicator system at the lowest level of aggregation possible. The advantage of this is that it permits more powerful analyses to be done on relationships among variables. The main disadvantage is that, once recorded, such data may be difficult to control so as to prevent future unintended uses.

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[5] This account of the Missouri Project draws heavily on a paper by Margaret E. Goertz and Benjamin King presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, March, 1989.

On the question of reporting, the developmental group recommended that state level indicators be included in the Annual Report of the Public Schools of Missouri. More specifically, it was recommended that measures of variability, such as frequency distributions, be reported as a way of looking at variation without identifying individual schools or districts which might be particularly high or low. It was also recommended that district profiles be generated, although it was not clear whether it was intended that these be publicly available. Finally, it was recommended that two-way and higher order displays be developed, showing relationships between outcomes and input or process variables as well as in groups based on district, race/ethnicity, or similar demographic variables.

Perhaps the most highly developed state indicator system in the United States is found in California. As was the case for Missouri, the starting point for indicator development was legislated school reform initiative. Additional impetus was given by a voter-approved measure mandating the state to develop school report cards. As Odden (1990) reports, California was in a better position than most states to produce indicators because it has developed and maintained a comprehensive data system, containing a variety of school-level outcome data such as enrolments in academic programs, dropout rates, and aggregate test scores of various kinds. From this it has been possible to develop **Quality Indicator Reports**, including not only the performance data indicated but also targets for improvement. The indicator program also includes an expanded student testing program, including a more comprehensive battery of subtests in the California Assessment Program (CAP) and the introduction of a new set of examinations for college preparatory courses in high schools. Finally, individual schools are required to produce a report card which included a variety of input variables (for example, expenditures per student, staff training and curriculum development programs), process indicators (such as status of facilities, discipline, class size), and finally outcome measures (such as achievement scores and dropout rates). The reports are also required to include statements of progress towards improvement.

### National Assessment in the United Kingdom[6]

The United Kingdom represents an interesting point of comparison with Newfoundland, because it is one of the few countries which maintained an elaborate national system of school-leaving examinations throughout the past two decades. Like the Newfoundland public examinations, the British system was designed for individual certification, and only recently has any use been made of the results for judging the performance of the system. Recent developments in Britain are worth recounting because of the public examinations parallel, and because they illustrate some of the conceptual and technical difficulties in rethinking the nature of output indicators.

In keeping with an overall philosophy of increasing choice and competition in all aspects of society, the British Government, beginning in the early 1980's, mandated that the public examination results be published at the school level. Since the implementation of an Education Reform Act in 1988, which also mandated a National Curriculum, this process has been taken much further. The National Curriculum requires that all schools teach a core of eleven subjects (English, mathematics, science, technology, history, geography, a foreign language at the secondary level, religious education, art, music, and physical education). It is intended that the curriculum be accompanied by performance targets for students at specific levels of the system (Ages 7, 11,14 and 16), and that performance be reported for individual classrooms and schools. The underlying model indicates that half the students at a particular level will meet the targets, and that there will be an increasing spread of performance as the levels advance. Interestingly, these are normative assumptions in what otherwise seems to be a criterion-based system.

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[6] This section is based primarily on Nuttall, D.L. (1990). Proposals for a National System of Assessment in England and Wales. **International Journal of Educational Research**, 14,4,373-381.

Various working groups have been assigned the task of developing the performance standards and the means of measuring performance. In areas such as mathematics and science, this appears to have been a manageable, though difficult task. In other areas, greater difficulties have been encountered. In general, the level of detail in the attainment targets has proved to be greater than could reasonably be reported. This problem was addressed by grouping attainments into what has been called profile components representing larger related clusters of attainments. In mathematics, for example, attainments have been grouped into two components, one involving number, measurement and algebra, and the second representing spatial relationships and data handling.

An important element of the development of assessment instruments is that some attainment targets clearly require a assessments of student performance that cannot be demonstrated through multiple choice items, or even of paper and pencil tests in general. The magnitude of the assessment and scoring task has led to the concept of combining local assessment with a national test. On the surface, this appears to resemble the shared evaluation system which has been in place in this province for about twenty years. However, something much more ambitious is being considered in Britain, with nationally established performance targets to be measured at least partly by local procedures, with the latter being subject to moderation to ensure that standards are comparable across schools.

Two important points may be drawn from these developments. First, the **school** has been treated as the primary unit of reporting, in keeping with the philosophy of reporting to the public information which would give the public a basis for making choices about schools. In Britain, there has been a long tradition of schools being much more autonomous than schools in North America, particularly in the specifics of the curriculum. This has always been accompanied, however, by a strong centralized examination system, which has no doubt ensured a high degree of uniformity in the basic content of the curriculum, particularly at the secondary school level. The introduction of a national curriculum would appear to a reversal of the tradition of autonomy. However, as long as the national curriculum is expressed in terms of specified subjects and performance targets, rather than, say, the prescription of particular textbooks, schools are likely to retain substantial freedom to meet the required targets in any way they can. It will be interesting to see if this ultimately leads to innovation at the school level and indications of exemplary practices which maximize attainment.

The second point is that the British experience illustrates some of the difficulties of specifying attainment targets and finding means of measuring performance beyond traditional tests. However, it also illustrates that by focusing on specific targets, these problems can be identified and addressed, if not immediately solved. One of the obvious flaws in the local public examinations is that few attempts have been made to develop specifications which would represent expected levels of attainment, much less expected objectives for school assessments. Although a system of moderation of school marks exists, is based on a simple numerical adjustment of marks which depart from expectations, rather than on identifying what is actually being measured by schools.

### The Australian National Indicators Project

Although relatively little detailed information is available on this project, a brief account by Ruby (1990) suggests that some strong parallels exist between the situations in Australia and Canada. However, a somewhat different approach to Federal/State relationships has allowed the national government to play a role in the development of indicator systems.

Ruby's description of state jurisdiction and federal/state relationships which could be read as an almost exact account of federal/provincial relationships in Canada. There are no national policies in curriculum, assessment, resources, or any other important aspects of education. At the same, time concerns have been raised about international competitiveness, public information about educational performance, accountability, and other issues of national interest, which almost exactly mirror debates currently occurring in Canada. Nationally, the increasing links between education, training, and employment have led to the development of national educational goals, and to the use of federal funding to help encourage the meeting of these goals.

Despite these strong parallels, there appears to be much less sensitivity to state jurisdiction in Australia than in Canada. This has allowed federal and state authorities to collaborate in a number of areas where education is seen as a matter of national interest. One of these is the development of indicators. An initial collaborative project involved an appraisal of existing provisions for student assessment, with a view to the possible development of a national approach to monitoring student achievement. A second related project involved establishing a set of national educational goals. While the Federal Government in Canada seems to be interested in both these issues, there is no indication of federal/provincial collaboration of this sort. Indeed, the CMEC project is an example of how the provinces have found means of attending to issues of concern without involving the federal government.

The Australian National Indicators Project grew out of these earlier collaborative efforts. The main objectives of the project are to collect the indicators currently available at various levels, to assess the value of indicators and the feasibility of developing further indicators, to explore issues in the interpretation and use if indicators, and to promote debate on these issues (Ruby, 1990, p. 404). Up to the time of this account, the activities of the project had consisted of holding a national conference and producing a series of information bulletins on various issues related to these objectives.

According to Ruby, several lessons have been learned from the project. These are 1) the difficulty of communicating effectively about assessment, 2) the notion that articulating positions on the issue can shift the focus of debate from narrow technical matters to the problems of interpretation and the influence of contexts and processes as well as outcomes, 3) wider acceptance that better information can bring about qualitative improvements in the system, 4) promoting the idea that indicators are linked with policy-making and the political process, 5) the need to draw on as many perspectives as possible and to draw on knowledge about indicators in other areas of social policy, and finally 6) that the process of analyzing indicators should be kept open to those affected and that criticism and debate can increase understanding about what indicators can accomplish.

### CMEC Indicators Project

The most prominent activity in Canada in the area of indicators is the project being carried out by the Council of Ministers of Education of Canada (CMEC). CMEC is an interprovincial body whose main purpose is to provide a forum for discussion of common areas of interest among the various provincial ministries of education. It is not common for CMED to undertake active developmental work, which suggests that its decision to launch an indicators project reflects the importance attached to this area by the constituent bodies of CMEC.

The CMEC indicators project was established following the initial OECD work on cross-national indicators in 1987. Any participation by Canada in an international project would have to be through an organization such as CMEC, because of the lack of any federal body which could speak for education in Canada. The CMEC project was designed to correspond to Canada's participation in two of the networks of the OECD project. CMEC has stated three goals for its indicators project:

1. to release an annual report the the Canadian Public showing the results within each province relative to specific education indicators
2. to assist each ministry/department to evaluate student progress and to identify priorities in education
3. to assist each ministry/department in ensuring a high quality education for young Canadians, preparing them to become responsible citizens and contributing members of society.

More specifically, the CMEC project is essentially divided into two activities, one concerned with improving the statistical data base on enrolments, staff, and financial inputs, and the second with outputs, particularly achievement. The particular components of the second project are as follows:

1. **System Indicators -** Participation, retention, attrition and graduation rates.
2. **Curriculum Expectations -** breadth and depth of curriculum coverage.
3. **Public Opinion** - public attitudes and satisfaction with the system.
4. **Standard Setting -** the use of panels of experts/citizens to establish passing scores on achievement to be developed.
5. **Student Testing -** Literacy and numeracy test for 13- and 16-year olds.
6. **Reporting -** annual reporting. (Mayer, 1990)

The project was formally introduced at a national conference in June, 1990. At that time, it was planned to issue a call for proposals to develop the required tests. Discussions had also been initiated with Statistics Canada with respect to gathering data on involvement. Subsequently, the idea of contracting for test development was abandoned, and the work was allocated to officials in two provincial ministries of education, Alberta and Quebec. Following a change of government in Ontario, the previous strong support of that province for the testing program has diminished, to the point where there remains some doubt as to the participation of the largest province.

### Statistics Canada Indicators

Although federal agencies have traditionally had only minimal involvement in elementary and secondary education, Statistics Canada has for many years compiled data on a number of important indicators. Most of the basic data are collected from the provinces, and published in a regular series of documents. The following are the two main documents relevant to elementary and secondary education:

1. **Advance Statistics on Education** (Annual since 1967). This report provides a broad summary of data on educational institutions, teaching staff, enrolment, graduates, and expenditures.
2. **Education in Canada, A Statistical Review** (Annual since 1973). This document covers the same basic ground as the Advance Statistics but provides more detailed data analysis, including time series. The document also provides data from the Census of Canada on educational attainment, and data from the Labour Force Survey on employment and labour force participation related to educational levels.

For a number of years, Statistics Canada also maintained a data base known as the **Elementary-Secondary Teacher System**. this data base was compiled from data submitted by the provinces on teacher qualifications, areas of specialization, areas of assignment, and class sizes. In Newfoundland, this data came from an annual survey of all teachers conducted by the Department of Education (known locally as the Educational Staff Record). While there were no regular publications derived from this data base, access was available to various data summaries through provincial departments of education. Unfortunately, this service was terminated a few years ago, and has never been replaced.

More recently, Statistics Canada has carried out a major study of literacy levels in the adult population. A large amount of effort was devoted to developing and validating tests, and more than 9,000 individual interviews were conducted. The main report of this study has just been published (Statistics Canada, 1991). Newfoundland made a special financial contribution to this study, in order to ensure that an adequate size sample was selected to represent the local population. The results are consistent with those of earlier studies, showing a substantial gap between literacy levels in Newfoundland and the Canadian average. For example, while 62 percent of Canadians were judged to possess reading skills sufficient to deal with everyday situations, only 39 percent of adults in this province were found to be at the same level of proficiency.

## IV. NEWFOUNDLAND DATA SOURCES

This section describes the range of programs currently in place in this province which might serve as sources of data for a system of indicators. The basic principle here is that of ensuring that the development of an indicator system does not add substantially to the burden placed on the system, in terms of student testing or other data gathering exercises. It is also important to ensure that an indicator system fully capitalizes on existing data, while avoiding overlaps. In many cases, it is possible that a simple reformulation of how the data is presented would make certain statistics more useful as indicators. In other cases, norms or other forms of comparison would have to be developed to determine whether the performance of the system in this province is comparable to that elsewhere. For still other purposes, it is likely that entirely new data gathering procedures would have to be put in place. A description of what now exists is the first step in determining what is needed.

### Public Examinations

Newfoundland has one of the most comprehensive systems of public examinations in Canada. In fact, for most of the past two decades, Newfoundland and Quebec were the only provinces with any form of public examinations. This has changed in more recent years, with Alberta and British Columbia having restored examinations in the basic academic subjects, and with other more limited programs in New Brunswick and Saskatchewan.

Public Examinations have been a fixture of the education system in Newfoundland since before the turn of the century. Originally set and marked in England, the examinations have undergone several transitions over the years. However, the basic purpose, that of certifying students for high school graduation, has remained the same. The current system, in place since 1971, is one in which examinations are administered in final year subjects (Level III courses in the current parlance). These examinations contribute 50 percent to a student's final grade, with the remaining 50 percent coming from school-based evaluations. A major increase in the number of subjects examined occurred in 1984, with the introduction of the revised high school program. At that time all of the more than 30 courses at Level III were subject to a public examination. This has been reduced to 19 in recent years, with the elimination of many low-enrolment courses from the system. Nevertheless, only Quebec currently maintains an examination system as comprehensive as the one in this province.

On the surface, the public examinations system would appear to provide a major indicator of the overall performance of students at the end of secondary schooling. In practice, these examinations have never been used as system-wide indicators. Results have never been used, for example, to compare schools, or to search for relationships between inputs and outcomes. In retrospect, this is perhaps a good thing, because recent critiques of the system (Crocker and Spain, 1986; McLean, 1989) have pointed to its many shortcomings. In particular, the validity of the examinations has been questioned, along with many other aspects of the construction, marking, and uses of the tests. An analysis of examinations in Mathematics and Science (Math/Science Task Force, 1989) showed both technical and substantive problems with the Newfoundland exams compared to those used in Alberta and British Columbia. The most positive thing said about the public examinations in these critiques is that the system is exceptionally well administered, despite severe limitations in Department of Education resources attached to the enterprise.

This is not the place to reiterate the problems associated with he current public examinations. It should be noted, however, that attempts to bring about some fundamental changes in how tests are constructed and marked began several years ago with a study of item banking (Crocker and Spain, 1986). This was followed by pilot project work in Biology (Crocker, 1988) and by implementation of an item banking approach, along with other changes such as machine scoring, in the same subject. This approach is being extended to other science subjects, in conjunction with curriculum changes now under way.

Although there is no way of comparing the performance of students on public examinations with that of students anywhere else in the world, the existence of data over many years would suggest that public examinations would be a primary indicator of trends over time. Pass rates and average scores for the public examinations, and for the composite made up of public and school scores, have been quite high and remarkably stable over time. On the surface, this would suggest that student performance is also quite stable. Recent analyses, however, (Math/Science Task Force, 1989) show that this is more an artifact of the scoring system than an indicator of trends. Put simply, the public examinations have been graded in such a way as to ensure little change in scores from year to year. Essentially, results for previous years are, in various implicit and explicit ways, used to scale marks to ensure stability. Because of this process, one of the major potential uses of the system as an indicator is lost.

Although the comparison of results over time is not possible, it should be possible to use the results within a single year to make comparisons across various parts of the system. In an initial attempt at this, the Department of Education has recently published comparative data by school district for the 1990 public examinations (Department of Education, 1991b). Unfortunately, only the combined mark, rather than separate school and public marks were presented. The results may therefore reflect differences in school and teacher grading policies as much as differences on the common examination. This interpretation is supported by the fact that the pattern of differences among districts is somewhat different from that found on the Canadian Test of Basic Skills (to be discussed in the next section). For comparison purposes, it would have been more appropriate to have used raw public examinations scores rather than the combined marks.

Despite its problems, the public examinations system appears to enjoy widespread support both within the education system and in the minds of the public. There are clear indications that public examinations results are being used in an informal way as system indicators, with the reputations of schools and even of individual teachers resting on their public examination results. All of this is done somewhat informally however, as the results are not published in a way which facilitates these comparisons. It is perhaps a mark of the appetite for comparisons, and of the need for accountability, that such things occur despite a lack of systematic data.

Aside from improvements in the quality of the tests themselves, several other things are needed to make the public examination system useful as part of an indicator system. The first, of course, is to have results reported at the appropriate levels of aggregation. Assuming that we wish to compare schools, for example, results at the school level will have to be published. In practice, this is quite easy to do, although it may be more difficult to persuade some people that this would be desirable. The second is to ensure that the tests are properly anchored and scored so that trends over time can be detected, and that comparisons within a single year are valid. Third, but more difficult, would be to find a way to place these results in an external comparative context. For example, it would be useful to know whether students in this province perform as well as those in Alberta or Ontario on similar examinations. For provinces with similar public examinations systems, some potential exists for developing common items and for sharing results. However, since public examinations are not universal in Canada, there would be some limitations in such comparisons. While public examinations are quite common in other countries, language and other problems would make it much more difficult to arrange for comparisons. It should be kept in mind, however, that the OECD indicators project is aimed at enhancing the comparability of data. It is possible that in time international sharing of such results will become commonplace.

## The Standards Testing Program

Every year since 1974, the Department of Education has administered the Canadian Test of Basic

Skills (CTBS) to all students in either Grade 4, 6, or 8, on a rotating basis. A high school version of the test has also been administered on several occasions since 1982. This program, known as the Standards Testing Program, has become one of the most widely used indicators of the performance of students in this province. Use of the term **indicator** is justified here because the purposes for which the CTBS is used, and the availability of national norms for this test, makes this program come much more closely to meeting the requirements of an indicator program than is true for any other tests used in the province.

The CTBS is a norm-referenced[7] test battery, with subtests in vocabulary, reading comprehension, language, work-study skills, and mathematics. National norms have been developed for the test, using representative samples of students in Canadian elementary and secondary schools. These norms are regularly updated. Scores for Newfoundland students are regularly interpreted with reference to the national norms.

Although there have been arguments over the validity of such a test for use in this province, and over the particular areas tested and omitted, the CTBS has become almost as much a fixture of the system as the public examinations. Because of the existence of norms, and because data are now available over a considerable period of time, the CTBS is much more useful than the public examinations as an indicator of performance at the system level. In recent years, district level comparisons have been available. Comparisons by school have never been published, although these are available to the districts. Student data are made available to the schools, but are not generally given to students or parents.

Provincial results on the CTBS have been widely cited as evidence that students in this province perform consistently below national averages (Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment, 1984; Mathematics/Science Task Force, 1989). The situation has not changed appreciably since the program was initiated in 1974. In 1990, for example, grade 4 students reached the 50th percentile rank relative to national norms on only one of 14 subtests (Department of Education, 1991). In some cases, there seems to be improvement between new normings of the tests, indicating that students are generally achieving at higher levels. However, drops following the renorming suggest that the Canadian average is also increasing at a rate which leaves Newfoundland student below average. It is important to note that most of the differences are not large, with students in this province hovering somewhere in the 40th to 50th percentile relative to the Canadian average on most subtests. Nevertheless, the persistence of these differences is a source of concern. Moreover, some differences are so large as to be alarming. For example, in 1990 grade 4 students were able to reach only the 33rd percentile on the CTBS vocabulary subtest and the 39th percentile on the reading comprehension subtest. Again illustrating their utility as system indicators, CTBS results have been broken down by gender, on a rural/urban index, and by school district (Department of Education, 1991). The most striking results are the district differences. A few districts, most notably those in St. John's, are actually slightly above the national average, while some districts are below the 30th percentile. This in not the place to analyze such differences in detail. These results are cited merely to illustrate the use of such data as indicators. Whatever their limitations, the comparative results on the CTBS tests can and have been used to make powerful statements about the system as a whole and about specific parts of the system.

### Other Provincial Test Results

In addition to the regular administrations of the public examinations and the CTBS, Newfoundland has participated in a number of other comparative testing programs, typically on a one-time basis. One of the most prominent of these was the Second International Science Study (SISS), discussed in the previous section. Although conducted in 1984, the SISS results are still cited to illustrate the standing of Canadian students internationally, and that of Newfoundland students within Canada. The results of this study are of less interest here than the lessons to be learned about the status of such testing programs in providing comparative indicators. Nevertheless, it is worth summarizing some of the results to illustrate the kinds of comparisons which can be made. Detailed comparisons are presented in other reports (Crocker, 1989, 1990).

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[7] The concept of norm-referencing, and its alternative criterion-referencing, will be discussed in a later chapter.

1. At the grade 5 level, the average score for Newfoundland students was 51 percent of items correct, slightly below the international average of 54 percent correct. Newfoundland students had the lowest scores in Canada, more than 10 percentage points lower than students in Manitoba, the highest scoring province.
2. At the grade 9 level, the difference between the Newfoundland average and the international average was 5 percentage points (56 percent for Newfoundland, 61 percent internationally). The difference between Newfoundland and the highest scoring province (Alberta in this case) was 10 points.
3. At the grade 12/13 level, there were four different tests, reflecting the various areas of specialization. In general, students everywhere in Canada performed below the international average on these tests. Within Canada, there was fairly wide variation. Again, Newfoundland students were near the bottom on all measures. Results at this level were complicated by wide differences in participation rates in the specialized sciences, both internationally and across the provinces. It is therefore likely that selection factors play an important part in accounting for the observed differences.

This last point illustrates one of the main points in dealing with test results as outcome indicators. Variations in test scores must be interpreted in light of a variety of factors which might influence the results. In the case of participation rates, for example, it might be expected that lower average scores are associated with larger numbers of students taking a particular course. However, this should be so only if lower participation was the result of higher selectivity (selecting into a course only those who are most likely to succeed). Before interpreting the scores, we would want to know something about the participation and selection variables. Furthermore, we would want to be concerned with the underlying policy issue of whether the goal is to encourage high participation or high average achievement, or whether these two are incompatible.

As a final example of a local testing program, a locally developed grade 6 science test has now been administered on two occasions, in 1987 and 1990. Such a test has some advantages over the CTBS, in that it is keyed to the local curriculum. On the other hand, there are no national norms for this test. Only local comparisons are therefore possible.

Results on the test show a slight improvement in science achievement from 1987 to 1990, on most subtests, and on the total score (an average of 57.5 compared to 56.0 items correct). Whether this represents a trend will not be clear until the test is used at least one or two more times. District results on this test show much smaller district differences here than for the CTBS. This is perhaps not surprising, because the science test is closely linked to a common local curriculum.

In a small scale attempt to obtain results linking the performance of Newfoundland students with that of students outside the province, the Task Force on Mathematics/Science Education arranged in 1988 to have the grade 6 science test administered to a sample of students in British Columbia. In turn, a similar test developed in that province was administered locally. Results indicated that B.C. students performed slightly better on the Newfoundland test, while Newfoundland students did somewhat worse on the B.C. test. This, of course, is contrary to the expectation that students will generally perform better on a test designed to fit the particular curriculum to which they have been exposed. In practice, the elementary science curriculums of Newfoundland and British Columbia are not notably different.

Overall, the results yield further confirmation of the gap between our students and those elsewhere.

### Other Output Indicators

Achievement, of course, is not the only measure of educational productivity. Reference has already been made to participation rates, graduation rates, proportions of students entering post-secondary eduction, and other forms of output indicators. Locally, data on such outputs have been assembled sporadically over the years, as part of various one-time studies. More recently, the Department of Education has begun to produce more systematic reports on a variety of features of the system, and particularly on outputs of this sort. This, in fact, has been a major focus of activities in the Department recently, and has resulted in a substantial improvement in the amount and quality of data available, as well as in the quality of its presentation.

The first document clearly labelled as an **indicators** report is the booklet entitled **Profile 90: Educational Indicators.** Besides summarizing achievement results which previously had been largely inaccessible to the public, the Profile 90 report also presented substantial data on participation and graduation rates. The following are some of the most important of the indicators presented:

1. Participation in schooling among students beyond the minimum school leaving age is quite high, at about 93% for 16 year olds and 88% for 17 year olds. Participation rated for the full 16-20 year age group is higher in Newfoundland than in all but one of the other provinces for which valid comparisons can be made (specifically, Newfoundland is compared to the seven other provinces with K-12 systems).
2. Of the students entering grade 1 twelve years ago, 67% have graduated. Put another way, the dropout rate, by this measure, is about 33%. Graduation rates have improved substantially in recent years.
3. Overall retention rates from year to year for 16-18 year olds have shown little change in recent years.
4. The long-term trend in graduation rate shows a substantial improvement since the early 1970's. The improvement has been more rapid in Newfoundland than in most other provinces, with this province now falling in the middle range on this indicator.

This and other statistical reports produced by the Department over the past couple of years have documented a variety of other more specialized indicators such as participation in French immersion, special education, and mathematics and science courses. Gender, urban/rural and other breakdowns have also been presented.

A second type of output indicator which is often suggested but much more rarely used is that of the way students and others feel about the system, and particularly levels of satisfaction with the system. The first broadly based attempt to obtain measures of student satisfaction occurred in 1990, when an attitude survey was added to the regular administration of the CTBS in grade 8. Under the general rubric of **Quality of School Life**, the instrument attempted to measure such variables as satisfaction, degree of identification with the school, attitudes towards teachers, and the value of schooling. Detailed results on the attitude scales are presented in the **Profile 90** document. In the absence of comparative or time series data, it is difficult to interpret these results. On the surface, there appears to be moderate satisfaction with school, and relatively little dissatisfaction. Students give teachers high ratings, and feel that there is a high level of opportunity to learn. On the other hand, perceptions of the usefulness of school varied depending on the specific question asked. For example, while more than 90 percent of students indicated that they learn the things they need to know, fewer than 50 percent indicated that they like all their school subjects.

Of course, students are not the only ones who should have an opportunity to express their level of satisfaction with school. Public satisfaction is also important. In fact, it might be argued that public support for education requires that the system perform to the satisfaction of the public, and that the most likely source of major upheaval in the system would be a high level of public dissatisfaction. From a policy perspective, therefore, public satisfaction might be considered a crucial variable.

Public approval or disapproval can be registered in a variety of ways, including through the actions of advocacy groups, submissions to study groups, advisory committees, or in the final analysis at the ballot box. However, it is the public opinion poll which is most likely to meet the criteria of a suitable indicator. While the province has had no systematic polling program, several polls have been conducted over the past decade or so (Warren, 1978; Warren, 1983; Math/Science& Educational Finance Task Forces, 1989) In general, these polls show that the public of the province gives the schools relatively high marks, and that the level of satisfaction has been improving over the years. Other more detailed results, such as those on denominational education or on funding levels, are of considerable interest from a policy perspective.

Yet another set of output indicators on which some data exists is that of post-secondary participation and success. Like many of the other indicators available, the data in this area have not been gathered systematically, but have been assembled during the course of the many studies of the system which have taken place in recent years.[8]

## Input Indicators

The most obvious gross indicator of input to the school system is the number of students who must be served. Various kinds of breakdowns of the student body are also useful. The Department of Education uses a form referred to as the **Annual General Return** to obtain basic enrolment data from schools. This return is completed on September 30 of each year, and serves a number of important functions, most obviously as the basis for teacher allocations and grants to school boards, both of which are governed by formulas based on enrolment.

The Annual General Return has been used as the basis for compiling comprehensive enrolment data over many years, giving an excellent picture of enrolment trends at both the provincial and school district levels. Enrolment projection studies have also been carried out periodically, the most recent having been published in 1990. These projections show a continued decline in total enrolment over the next decade, with a shifting pattern from elementary to secondary school as students progress through the system. Generally, the enrolment projections have been quite accurate. Enrolment projections can be used in a variety of ways, including financial and facilities planning, prediction of post-secondary needs, and prediction of teacher demand. In fact, the work on enrolments is perhaps the best local example of how indicators can be used to inform policy.

On the financial side, most of the revenue available to school boards is either directly tied to teacher salaries or comes from the Province in the form of per-pupil grants. Variations in overall funding are thus relatively small compared to what is seen in more decentralized systems. For example, there is little point in looking at variations in teacher salaries, as is often seen in indicator systems, when the salary scale is uniform across the province. Nevertheless, in certain areas such as allocations by boards to schools for such things as instructional materials, the variations which do exist may be of crucial importance. Furthermore, as the current controversy over school tax shows, even the small variations between boards created by the existing school tax system are considered significant enough that some boards are strongly opposed to any move to change the system. This, of course, illustrates that any variations in revenues or expenditures are likely to be of sufficient importance for policy-making to justify their inclusion in any indicator system.

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[8] As a participant in some of these studies, the author has often attempted to make the point that the need for such studies, and the effort required to carry them out, could be reduced substantially if a more adequate data base were available.

The Department of Education requires each school board to submit annual audited financial statements, in accordance with a prescribed format. The data from these statements are entered into a data base which is used for a variety of comparative purposes. The major limitation of this data base is that the data are available only at the district level. This may mask many potentially important variations between schools. Also, financial data have not been included in the recent series of reports made available to the public. Occasionally, comparative data on differences between provinces in per-pupil expenditures and similar indicators do become public, as these are available from Statistics Canada publications. As a rule, however, financial data are not as readily accessible to the public as other data have recently become.

The third major category of indicators data to be discussed in the next section involves educational personnel. Here the picture is also mixed. Basic demographic data on number of teachers, teacher qualifications, age, experience and similar variables are readily available from the **Teacher Payroll System**. These data have appeared fairly regularly in public reports, and have been included in the recent statistical summaries prepared by the Department of Education. Projections of teacher supply and demand have also been published. Nevertheless, a major gap has been created in available teacher information by a decision made by Statistics Canada several years ago to discontinue maintaining what was called the **Elementary-Secondary Teacher System.** Data for this system had been collected for a number of years through an annual survey known in this province as the Educational Staff Record. This system contained details of teacher assignments, areas of specialization, class sizes, and a variety of other valuable information. Because this system was national in scope, it allowed interprovincial comparisons to be made, as well as comparisons within the province. Unfortunately, this data base was never extensively utilized, in part perhaps because it was maintained by Statistics Canada and the technology used did not lend itself to easy local access. With current technology, it would be a much simpler matter to capitalize on a data base of this sort.

The Department of Education has made some effort to reintroduce a modified version of this system. A data base known as the **Achool board Administration System** has been developed, which captures a substantial amount of the data formerly included in the Educational Staff Record. This system was intended for use within school boards, and the Department of Education does not now have access to the data. It is not clear how extensively the system is used by school board offices, or even whether the system is kept up to date. Assuming that the data are gathered, it would be a relatively simple matter to developp a provincial data base from the school board system.

It should be noted that under the Statistics Canada system there was little direct cost, as all data entry and analysis was done by Statistics Canada itself. To restore the system would entail some cost, although with existing technology it is possible that most of the required data could be entered directly at the school level. This point will be taken up in the next section, as the prospects for developing an integrated system could be enhanced substantially through the use of a school-based computer network, serving a variety of purposes.

## V. AN ACCOUNTABILITY SYSTEM

We finally come to the main point of the report, that of outlining the features of an indicator system for use in this province. Here we return to the five aspects of the mandate presented by the Commission. The first step is an attempt to respond to the first aspect of the mandate of the study, that of a rationale for accountability, and an indication of the levels of accountability. Some specific indicators are then identified within each of the input, process, and output domains. Existing data sources available in the province are next reexamined, and modifications suggested to current data bases to make these sources more useful as system indicators. Proposals are then made for additional data collection to complete the system. The question of how some of this data collection might be automated is also addressed. Finally, some limitations and cautions are discussed, and observations made on matters of cost, organization, and feasibility.

**Rationale for Accountability**

The discussion of accountability in section II, and the various further references in the reviews given in Section III suggest the following reasons for holding the educational system accountable for its performance:

1. The need to strive for continual improvement in the system. A static system is inherently one which will lose ground relative to other systems.
2. The need to maintain acceptable standards of performance.
3. The demand for efficiency in light of diminishing resources.
4. Public need to be informed about the performance of the system and about how tax resources are used.
5. The increased importance of education for economic development.

All accountability is ultimately directed towards assuring the public that the vast amount of resources being put into education represents a good investment in the future, and that the educational experiences provided to our children are of the highest quality. This is true whether one views education primarily as an economic investment, a means of cultural transmission, an instrument of social change, or in some other way.

Since education is organized as a hierarchical system, it is important to ask whether each level of the hierarchy (teachers, schools, school boards,and so on) should simply be accountable to the next order of the hierarchy, or whether public accountability should be the primary objective at even the lowest levels. On the one hand, it might be argued that the elected bodies, specifically school boards and the Provincial Government, should be accountable to the public, because the public has the ultimate say in who is to be their representatives. On the other hand, the educational unit closest to the public is the **school.** This is where the children are found, and where parental concerns are most likely to be focused. Schools are closely linked to communities, and might be expected to reflect community values and expectations.

It is also becoming clear, especially from work such as that of Goodlad (1984) that the school is the crucial unit for educational innovation and improvement. Whatever the structure of the hierarchy above the school level, the school remains relatively self-contained and separated from other units of the system. While it is beyond the scope of this report to examine the school improvement movement and related developments, there is little doubt that the focal point for improvement is shifting to the school.

If the most important accountability audience is the public and the most obvious accountability unit the school, it follows that school performance indicators should be reported to the public. While this is a fairly revolutionary concept locally, where the focus has been on the school district and where, until recently, there has been great reluctance to engage in any form of comparisons, other educational jurisdictions have moved to school level reporting. While this remains controversial, most of the controversy surrounds the reporting of output data without also reporting the appropriate input factors. This type of misuse of indicators is to be avoided if school level reporting is to have the desired effects.

In some jurisdictions, particularly in the United Kingdom, school level reporting is intended to provide parents with information which will encourage competition between schools. Whatever the merits of this usage, there are few places in this province where this would be feasible in any case. Leaving aside the question of crossing denominational lines, there is little or no choice of schools in most communities in the province. For local purposes, school reporting must serve different purposes. First among these must be school improvement. Since control of resources and other inputs rests with higher levels of the system, schools must also be accountable to these higher levels. Without knowing the specifics of the organizational model to be recommended by the Commission, it is not possible to suggest how this level of accountability will develop, and where the decisions would be made on how particular schools might be improved. To some extent, it might be expected that this would be driven by public demand for improvement, once the public has access to the necessary information. At the same time, public pressure is unlikely to translate directly to specific prescriptions for improvement.

We are left therefore with a model in which school accountability to the public is the basic who-to-whom relationship. School accountability to other levels of the system, on the other hand, can be expected to be the primary vehicle for bringing about change. Under a school accountability model, one would expect to find increased public interest, as well as increased pressure for change. On the other hand, it cannot be expected that the public would actually be the source of specific ideas for change. The job of policy-makers at the district or provincial level would be to respond to public pressure through greater innovation and through the use of resources to effect change.

The problem of assessing performance at levels higher than the school is more difficult, because the position which might be taken on this depends on precisely what model of system organization is in place. If the school is to be the basic accountability unit, all other units should be seen as essentially in the service of the school. On the other hand, other levels have had specific responsibilities under the existing system, and should be assessed with respect to these responsibilities. For present purposes, the assumption will be made that the system will remain organized along much the same lines, with school boards, and the Department of Education being the major levels of organization superordinate to the school. It will also be assumed that the division of responsibilities will remain essentially the same. On this basis, some preliminary observations can be made. More specific propositions on assessment of these levels will be discussed in a subsequent section, once the basic components of an accountability system are outlined.

1. School districts will need to be assessed on areas such as financial management, employment practices, quality of school facilities, effectiveness of supervision of and services to schools, and effectiveness of bringing about school improvement. This latter point is linked with the idea of school-based accountability, in the sense that under the current system, the school district would have to assume the main responsibility for policies designed to improve the schools under their jurisdiction.
2. The Department of Education would be assessed on such factors as quality of curriculum, teacher allocation policies, evaluation practices, financial management, and importantly, quality of the overall accountability system itself.
3. Other agencies with direct responsibility, most notably the Denominational Education Councils, should be assessed within their specific responsibilities, most notably capital funding allocation policies and religions education.

### Input Indicators

It is proposed that indicators of system inputs cover the following broad areas:

1. Enrolments
2. Financial resources
3. Personnel resources

While this may seem like a rather limited set of inputs, it will soon be clear that in order to represent each of these areas, quite a number of specific indicators will have to be derived. Other areas, such as student background might have been included, but these are not amenable to change through policy initiatives. For example, the number of students at various levels of socioeconomic status might be of interest for certain purposes. However, this information is excluded from the indicator system on the grounds that no educational policy decisions could be expected to influence the socioeconomic makeup of the student population. (Whether this is amenable to change through economic policies is another matter, which cannot be addressed within an educational indicator system).

**Enrolments.** Specific enrolment indicators would include the following:

1. Trends in the total number of students in the system, along with projections of future enrolments
2. Enrolment breakdowns by division (primary, elementary, intermediate, secondary) and by grade, and projections at these levels.
3. Analysis of enrolments by gender, urban/rural, denomination, school district, and similar variables.

It is important to recognize that raw enrolment data have no meaning in themselves as indicators, whatever their value for other purposes such as calculation of per-pupil grants. The statement that there were 127,029 students in grades K-12 in 1990 becomes an indicator only when this figure is compared to something else. The most obvious basis for comparison here is the trend over time. What is interesting and useful about enrolment is whether it is increasing or decreasing over time, and what is predicted to happen over a span of years for which plans have to be made.

Fortunately, enrolment is one of the areas in which the appropriate basic data have been available for many years. The starting point for the data base is a report which must be submitted by each school. A standard date of September 30 has been established as the enrolment reporting date. Because per-pupil grants, teacher allocations, and other important resource decisions are made on the basis of these enrolment figures, enrolment reporting is a high stakes activity, which ensures compliance with the requests for data. Some minor difficulties may exist with accuracy of reporting, in that schools have strong incentives to keep students in the system for purposes of the count, whatever may happen to some individuals later in the year. As there is no audit of the count, there is no means of determining whether there are any systematic errors in the enrolment figures. Despite this, however, enrolments would have to be considered about the most adequate of all the data sources currently available.

Until recently, enrolment data were generally not made public in any systematic way. This has changed in rectnt years as the Department of Education now publishes annual statistical reports. As yet, there is little evidence that these data have received much coverage in the public media or much attention beyond the realm of the school system itself.

### Financial Resources

From a public perspective, two contradictory issues seem to be at stake in the reporting of financial resources as system indicators. Unlike in a business setting, where high unit costs are generally undesirable, the most obvious measure of unit cost in education, namely per-pupil expenditure, is usually interpreted in the reverse. That is, high per-pupil cost is generally considered to be desirable. Certainly the low per-pupil expenditure in this province relative to other parts of Canada is frequently cited by way of explaining poor performance in our system. On the other hand, measures such as expenditure per taxpayer, which convey a picture of the public burden in carrying the education system, are seen as needing to be low. In the extreme it might be argued that, as consumers of education, the public would like to keep costs as high as possible while, as its financial backers, the public interest lies in keeping costs as low as possible.

High unit costs, of course, can be caused by providing high levels of service or it can be a function of inefficiency in the system. The current catch phrase "doing more with less" suggests that there may be inefficiencies in the system, and that services can be improved while reducing costs at the same time. On the other hand, public protests over such things as school closing suggests that there may be considerable tolerance of inefficiency. What is important about this for present purposes is that indicators are necessary which contribute to both sides of the argument. The function of the indicator system is to provide the information, not to settle the issue.

A major area in which an indicator system could serve to sharpen the focus of debate would be in providing information about strategic areas of expenditure. An example would be per-pupil expenditures on instructional materials, which most people would perhaps agree should be high. A second example would be administrative expenditures, which most would agree need to be as low as possible. Other similar indicators would be some form of cost/benefit index or index of the variation in costs of providing the same services in different localities. In other words, we should be seeking to develop indicators which go beyond the most obvious but perhaps misleading measures of expenditure. Some suggestions for such indicators are given in the list which follows.

1. Per-pupil expenditures, with comparisons for other localities
2. Total system expenditures with proportional breakdowns as follows:
    - teachers salaries
    - capital expenditures (new buildings, renovations, repairs)
    - maintenance
    - administrative expenditures
    - instructional materials
    - assessment
    - program development and evaluation
3. Per-taxpayer expenditures, with comparisons for other localities
4. Revenue breakdowns by source
5. Fund raising by schools

**Personnel Resources.** At one level, personnel resources are somewhat easier to deal with than financial resources, for the simple reason that accurate records must be kept on personnel for payroll purposes. Such records will not necessarily contain all information desired. Nevertheless, a system can fairly easily be built around payroll records. The basic data in payroll files can be supplemented by surveys, school records and other means.

The following indicators of personnel resources are recommended:

1. Total teachers and breakdowns of this total by division and type of assignment.
2. Age and gender breakdowns of teachers.
3. Overall pupil/teacher ratio and breakdowns by division.
4. Distribution of overall teacher qualifications (certificate levels, degrees), and specific areas of specialization (academic major, pedagogical specialty), with breakdowns by division.
5. Average teacher salary and overall salary distribution.
6. Number of non-teaching professional staff (principals, other administrators, librarians, coordinators, etc,) and ratio of such staff to total teachers.
7. Number of support staff.

8. Number and characteristics of substitute teachers.

The data for some of these indicators are directly available. Certain other indicators could be derived from these data without difficulty. However, areas such as teacher qualifications and assignments are not adequately covered by the existing data base. The Elementary/Secondary Teacher System maintained for some years by Statistics Canada did contain data which could be used for this purpose. However, these data were collected in a fairly cumbersome way, partly because the system was designed to be implemented across all provinces. Except for periodic use by groups investigating some problem in the system, the Statistics Canada data base received little use, and was never systematically exploited as a source of indicators.

### Process Indicators

This is the least well developed of the three major indicator areas. It is also the area least likely to lend itself to simple quantitative measures. The core elements of educational processes are the activities which occur behind the classroom door (although we should not assume that the self-contained classroom is the only or the best structure for learning). At the same time, there are numerous elements of curriculum, school organization, preparation, evaluation, and the like, which also go into the design and execution of instructional processes. It is convenient for analysis to divide these components into three stages, which we may call **pre-instructional, instructional, and post-instructional**. Some examples of indicators in each of these areas follows.

#### Pre-Instructional Indicators

1. Breadth and depth of school programs
2. Average class size with breakdowns by division, subject area, region, school size
3. Range of variation of class sizes
4. Match of teacher qualifications to teacher assignments
5. Classrooms and other school space (crowdedness)
6. Library volumes and other instructional resources
7. Quality and currency of textbooks and other print materials
8. Availability of laboratory and other special purpose facilities
9. Provisions for special needs students
10. Grouping arrangements
11. Opportunity to learn (e.g. time spent on various curriculum areas)

This is an area in which substantial improvement in existing data bases is required before these indicators can be produced. At one time, class size data was available from the Educational Staff Record. Although some work has been done in the Department of Education in this area, there is as yet no replacement for the latter survey. Even when the survey was done, little was published on class size. The need to go to Statistics Canada for analysis may be one of the reasons for this. Whatever the reason, class size and related variables are generally regarded as important indicators of how students are treated in school. Of particular interest from a policy perspective would be variations in class size. Because teacher allocations to school districts are uniform across the province, such variations would indicate differences in the way teachers are deployed by schools and districts. This is important from a public perceptions perspective because teacher allocations to individual schools, particularly those with rapid declines in enrolment, has been a source of considerable controversy in the province.

The match of teacher qualifications and assignments is an area which has been investigated sporadically in a number of studies, but which has received little attention generally. In some areas, it is clear that schools strive for specialization, while in others specialization is not considered a virtue. No overall attempts have been made to bring about a balance in the areas of expertise in the teaching force, with the result that there are chronic shortages of teachers in some areas and considerable surpluses in others. It has been argued many times that most schools in the province are too small to allow for a high degree of specialization. Again, however, nothing has ever been done to address the problem of breadth versus depth. Indicators of match or mismatch could provide the impetus to examine this problem more closely.

### Instructional Variables

1. Time on specific topics
2. Transition times (e.g. between class periods, recesses)
3. Time on specific acclivities such as laboratory work
4. Average time on task for students in class
5. Expected homework time
6. Time spent in groups of various sizes
7. Access to laboratory materials, computers, library books, and other instructional materials
8. Teacher use of instructional aids other than chalkboard and textbook
9. Variety of instructional techniques used
10. Forms of grouping and classroom organization
11. Variety of materials used
12. Use of laboratory and other special purpose facilities

Many of these variables can be measured only through some form of direct classroom reporting. Although there have been substantial advances in the development and use of observational techniques for classroom processes, most such work has been carried out in a research context, rather than in the interest of accountability. Classroom observation work remains much more labour-intensive than other data collection procedures, when conducted by outside observers.

The alternatives, of course, are student reports or teacher self-reports. Student assessments of teaching are common at the university level, but are not widely used in elementary and secondary education, particularly for the evaluation of individual teachers. While there may be some question about this latter use, an argument can be made that for purposes preparing summary data on classroom activities, student reports could serve us well. Certainly there is little hesitation in using student surveys for a variety of other purposes. In the next section, in fact, an argument will be made for using student ratings of satisfaction with schooling as an important outcome indicator. In practice, it would be relatively easy to develop a more comprehensive student survey which would include measures of classroom activities. Such surveys have often been part of large scale achievement studies such as those conducted by IEA.

As for teacher self-reports, these are commonly used in research. Teacher surveys are also a main source of data for many policy studies. What is fairly rare is to have teachers report on what they actually do in classrooms. Nevertheless, there is nothing far-fetched about such a notion, and examples do exist of instruments which could be used for this purpose. The recent Mathematics/Science Task Force used several such instruments (Fushell, 1989; Banfield, 1989). A more elaborate instrument, which also included **opportunity to learn** ratings was also used as part of the Second International Science Study (Connelly, Crocker, and Kass, 1985).

Much more reliable and comprehensive data on classroom processes can be gathered through the use of one of the many direct observation instruments developed over the past twenty years. Most of these systems are based on the use of trained observers to code specific categories of behaviour, using either fixed time intervals or specific events as the basic coding units to provide real-time data on classroom events. One such instrument (Crocker, et. al., 1979) developed for use in a local study some years ago is typical. This instrument was based on successive thirty-second observations of the teacher and a sample of six students, and involved more than one hundred categories of classroom behaviour. Observations were conducted for some thirty hours in each classroom, spread over a full school year.

Using real-time observations is clearly superior to using ratings based on recall of general categories of behaviour, as is typical in a student survey. Unfortunately, such an undertaking is expensive, and is much more suited to an intensive research project in small numbers of classrooms than to a broadly based survey designed to give a picture of classrooms throughout the province. What is proposed here is that teacher and student survey instruments be designed to more closely approximate the characteristics of an observational instrument than is normally the case. In particular, it is proposed that the emphasis shift from the usual rating scales (e.g teacher is well prepared, teacher understands the subject, teacher helps individual students) to time based estimates and descriptions of specific activities.

### Output Indicators

Student achievement is by far the most widely recognized indicator of school outputs. Most existing indicator systems also use various measures of involvement and participation, such as dropout rates or university admissions as output indicators. Much less widely used, but often referenced in discussions of indicator systems are attitudinal variables such as satisfaction with schooling. Finally, occasional references can be found to longer term outcomes such as employment and earnings, particularly as indicators of post-secondary outputs. Recently, literacy rates have received a good deal of attention, as surveys have revealed high levels of illiteracy even among those with a substantial amount of formal education. The latter is an excellent example of a potential indicator which derives its significance from concerns which find expression largely outside the education system itself.

**Student Achievement.** There is obviously no shortage of measures in this area. However, it is less obvious that current achievement testing programs are the ones which will serve us best in the future. Public examinations, and even the CTBS, have been with us for a long time. However, there is little to suggest that the existence of these programs has helped improve the performance of the system. To be sure, public examinations were not designed to provide system indicators but rather to certify students for high school graduation. Nevertheless, for a variety of reasons having to do with how public examinations are constructed and graded, the results have become entirely predictable, hiding more than they reveal about actual levels of student proficiency. Although CTBS results can be used as system indicators, there is little to suggest that CTBS results have had much influence on provincial educational policy, or that the goal of improvement has been served by this program.

What is needed for student achievement is not more tests but a more coherent testing program. Ideally, achievement indicators should be closely tied to the Aims of Education for the province, and provide evidence on the level of attainment of these aims. Unfortunately, most of the current aims are so broad as to be impossible to assess by achievement tests.[9] While this may reinforce the need for revision of the aims, this point cannot be addressed here. Rather, it is more reasonable to work towards narrower goals such as developing performance goals and targets, and examining indicators in such areas as critical thinking which, though almost universally acknowledged in aims of education, is almost equally universally ignored in achievement testing. In saying this, it must be recognized that a considerable amount of developmental work will be required before a comprehensive student achievement program can be put in place. What is proposed here is intended to be the skeleton of a program to replace the current system of achievement measures with one designed to provide a more comprehensive picture of performance.

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[9] There have been some recent attempts to work on revision of the Aims of Education, which have undergone only one revision since their original publication in the 1950's. However, no drafts of any proposed changes have been made public.

While on the subject of critical thinking, it is worth noting that there has been considerable work in this area over the past few years. Much of this work has been conceptual, attempting to delineate the components of critical thinking, and to develop measures of these components (Facione, 1990) A number of general purpose critical thinking tests exist, and some jurisdictions have already moved to incorporate such tests into their overall measurement programs (e.g. Fisher, undated). As it happens, one of the major critical thinking projects in the world is based at Memorial University, under the direction of Stephen Norris. In fact, Norris' work was cited more widely than any other in a recent consensus statement prepared for the American Philosophical Association (Facione, 1990). A strong argument can be made that leadership in research in this area should be used to bring about comparable leadership in teaching and measurement in the critical thinking area.

As a starting point in the improvement of testing, a shift is required from a norm-referenced to a criterion-referenced approach to the measurement of achievement.[10] That is, instead of looking at student achievement relative to a set of norms, as is currently the case for the CTBS (and for most other standardized achievement tests), it is proposed that achievement standards be established at various levels of the system, and that achievement results be reported in terms of the proportions of students reaching the required standard. Specifically, it is proposed that standards be developed at four stages, specifically the end of grades 3, 6, 9 and 12. The standards should be developed through a consultative process, involving representatives of the public as well as educators, and through comparative analysis of curriculum documents, tests, and other sources, sufficient to ensure that the standards are at least comparable to the highest in Canada.

Several provinces have already developed comprehensive student assessment programs. The British Columbia and Alberta programs offer the best models. In addition to having a system of public examinations at the grade 12 level, these provinces have implemented cyclic programs at other grade levels, using locally developed curriculum based tests. In British Columbia an attempt has been made to place the achievement tests on a criterion-referenced basis through the use of interpretation panels responsible for determining whether levels of performance on individual items and sub-tests is satisfactory.

An essential requirement for improving achievement tests is to move away from total reliance on multiple choice items. Most large scale testing programs have gone this route because multiple choice items have been the only ones amenable to mechanized scoring. Despite the labour intensiveness of scoring for other forms of items, many testing programs are now beginning to incorporate written response items. For example, the recently reintroduced public examinations in Alberta and British Columbia have been based on a combination of multiple choice and written response items.

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[10] Considerable technical detail is involved in the terms norm-referenced and criterion-referenced as applied to test development, scoring, and interpretation. For present purposes a fairly simple statement will suffice. A norm-referenced test is one in which the results for a particular student or group of students is interpreted in relation to the performance of some reference group of students. A criterion-referenced test is one in which results are interpreted relative to an established body of subject matter. Most standardized achievement tests are norm-referenced. In principle, tests such as the public examinations are criterion-referenced, in that the items are based on a particular curriculum. In practice, however, results on the public examinations are implicitly or explicitly scaled to ensure that an expected number of students will succeed. This effectively converts the public examinations into norm-referenced tests.

The Newfoundland public examinations have always been based primarily on written response items. A well established system, the Public Examinations Marking Board, is therefore in place to mark tests of this type. Unfortunately, recent analyses (Crocker and Spain, 1986) have shown that much of what is tested by such items might just as well be covered by multiple choice items. Much of the effort of the marking board has gone into marking routine items, rather than reserving such effort for higher level tasks. Recommendations from the item banking project have essentially been along the lines of using more multiple choice items, while upgrading the level of written response items. The point is that it should be possible to redirect the large effort now being put into marking in a way which would allow for substantial test improvement.

In summary, the steps required to put in place a more adequate achievement testing system are as follows:

1. Shift from normative to criterion-based tests
2. Develop performance standards at selected levels of the system
3. Include in these standards basic literacy indicators as well as indicators of higher level outcomes such as critical thinking
4. Report results in terms of proportion of students meeting the standards
5. Use written response items where necessary to test higher-level outcomes

**Participation and Attainment.** Participation refers to the proportion of students at particular age levels in school or the proportion taking particular programs or courses. Attainment refers to the highest levels of education reached by particular groups of students. Participation and attainment are much easier to measure than achievement, since we are dealing with relatively straightforward counts. National and international data are also available for comparison. At the same time, there are some ambiguities of definition, and some gaps in the current data base in this area.

One of the major problems in examining participation is that different jurisdictions have different school leaving ages and different levels at which significant transitions occur. A good example can be found in the **Profile 90** document, in which Quebec is shown as having a much lower proportion and Ontario a much higher proportion of the 16-20 year age group in school. In order to make sense of these figures, it is necessary to know that secondary schooling in Quebec ends at the equivalent of grade 11, and that in Ontario, many students continue to an advanced credit program beyond grade 12. Most 18 year olds in Quebec would not be found in the secondary schools but rather in the community colleges.

Similar problems occur with attainment. Concepts such as the school dropout rate seem relatively easy to define. However, several different measures of dropping out can be developed. Somewhat different figures are arrived at, for example if the dropout rate is defined in terms of proportion of the age group graduating from school, versus the proportion of grade 8 students who are in grade 12 four years later. Secondary school attainment has to be looked at in relation to post-secondary participation if a true picture is to be obtained of the proportion of an age group participating in some form of education. Similarly, such figures as university admissions can be misleading as a provincial indicator unless we know something about the interprovincial migration of university students, or about differences in admission requirements.

Most of these problems are fairly easy to overcome at the provincial level. Some reworking of existing data is all that would be required The major problem lies at the school and district levels. As far as can be determined, schools do not usually track their participation and attainment rates and in any case do not submit these to the Department of Education. If the school is to be used as the basic reporting unit, a system will have to be developed for recording and reporting this type of data. Under the data gathering system to be proposed, this will not be a difficult thing to do.

The following are some examples of specific indicators of participation and attainment:

1. Proportion of each year group from 16 to 20 years in secondary or post-secondary education
2. Proportion of year groups graduating from high school
3. Participation rates in high school subjects, especially those meeting post-secondary entrance requirements
4. Proportion of students requiring remediation or other special services related to low performance
5. Proportion of students in French Immersion, advanced courses, or other high performance programs
6. Attendance rates of students above school-leaving age
7. Post-secondary admission rates for newly graduated students

**Attitudes and Values.** Attitudes have not been widely used as indicators of school outcomes. There are probably several reasons for this. First, it is not immediately obvious whether attitudes should be treated as input or output variables. Second, attitudes and values are generally seen as difficult to measure. Finally, there may not be universal agreement about which attitudes to emphasize, or whether particular values should be taught. The latter point is particularly important since it is at the heart of debates over the place of religion or particular social values in schooling.

On the question of attitudes as inputs or outputs, it can be argued that positive attitudes are a necessary condition for high achievement, or that the attitudes students bring to school are relatively fixed characteristics, shaped primarily by external forces. Defined in this way, attitudes are essentially input variables. On the other hand, schools might be expected to foster positive attitudes or to help students overcome negative ones. This expectation transforms attitudes into outputs. Clearly many broad aims of education are value-laden. For example, students are expected to learn tolerance and cooperation, to develop positive self-concept, or to respect the rights of others. Although these attitudes are dealt with in various parts of the curriculum, it is rare to find outcome measures in this area.

It is possible to look at attitudes from a somewhat different perspective. If schools are intended to serve the needs of society, then schools should be expected to perform to the satisfaction of their ultimate clients and owners, the public. Looked at more narrowly, it should be expected that students would derive satisfaction from their school experiences, and would rate positively the conditions which they encounter in school. Student satisfaction is captured in studies of what has come to be known as **Quality of School Life (QSL).** Public satisfaction is typically assessed through public opinion polls.

A summary of recent work in this province on both quality of school life and public opinion has been given in Section III. In brief, there appears to be a high level of both student and public satisfaction with the school system. Again, comparative data are required to help in interpreting these results. Some basis for comparison exists in periodic national public opinion polls. There are indications, for example, that the level of public satisfaction with schooling is higher in this province than elsewhere. The main point here is that such attitudes are reasonably easy to measure, and are clearly worthy of inclusion in any comprehensive indicators system. Ongoing programs nationally and in other provinces suggests that it will be easier in the future to make the necessary comparisons.

A third attitudinal area has to do with the aspirations and expectations of students. What proportion of students intend to continue education beyond high school? What career plans and expectations are held by students? How do such expectations change over time? What differences in expectations exist between males and females, or between students in rural and urban schools? Are there gaps between expectations and reality? Although some would hold that preparation for further education and for careers is not the most important function of schools, public opinion is strongly against this view, as is the argument that schools must serve an economic development purpose. For example, strong arguments have been made that more students should be choosing post-secondary paths leading to careers in science and technology. Knowing the trends in student views on this matter is important for making decisions on policies which might encourage such choices.

In recommending specific indicators, it is difficult to argue for measuring such attributes as self-concept, because of questions of whether these should be treated as inputs or outputs, and because instruments in these areas are neither readily available nor easily developed. On the other hand, quality of school life from the student perspective, along with public opinions on schools, represent more straightforward outputs. Similarly, it is relatively easy to obtain data on aspirations and expectations. Accordingly, the following attitudinal indicators are proposed:

1. Student satisfaction with aspects of school life such as
    - curriculum
    - teachers
    - facilities
    - personal relationships
2. Student attitudes to education in general
    - value of schooling
    - value of specific subjects
    - challenges
    - motivation
    - preparation for future
3. Student expectations and aspirations
    - levels of attainment
    - grades expected
    - further education plans
    - career plans
4. Public Opinions and Perceptions
    - importance of education
    - importance of specific aims of education
    - overall grade given to schools
    - areas of improvement
    - willingness to pay

## Analytical Relationships

One of the most important issues in interpreting indicators is that of how to establish causal relationships among the various categories of indicators. From a policy perspective it is important to know if certain uses of resources or particular ways of deploying personnel are more effective than others. In its simplest form, effectiveness means either that greater resources should yield improved outcomes, or that the same outcomes can be achieved with fewer resources under certain conditions as opposed to others.

This implies that the simplest relationships are those between inputs and outputs. Unfortunately, at a global level, there was a persistent belief for some time that variations in school resources had little impact on outcomes. This belief was reinforced by such influential works as the **Equality of Opportunity Study** (Coleman, et. at., 1966) and Jencks' (1972) book **Inequality**. Jencks, for example, argued that "the evidence suggests that equalizing educational opportunity would do very little to make adults more equal (p.255). Among the major problems of this early work, however, were the absence of sufficient systematic data on schools and the lack of refinement of such data. Global indicators gathered from one-time surveys are likely to be less reliable than data gathered from first hand sources or data gathered over time. More refined data on what actually goes on in schools, and particularly in classrooms, have yielded many well established relationships, such as those between certain teaching processes and achievement (Brophy and Good, 1986). Even at the level of global indicators, significant relationships can be shown to exist.

As an example, correlations were computed between measures of resources and outcomes for the U.S. state level indicators recently published by Fortune Magazine (October 21, 1991). Significant correlations were found between college entrance test scores and average teacher salary, pupil teacher ratio and per-pupil expenditures. A negative correlation was found between the same outcome and teacher salaries as a proportion of total expenditures, suggesting that expenditures in areas other than salaries are associated with higher achievement. Since in the U.S. there are many states, and substantial differences between states in resources devoted to education, such figures should be reasonably stable. It is worth noting that it would not be possible to do similar correlations across Canadian provinces even if similar data were available. However, analysis of this type could be done using schools as the basic unit.

Relationships between process measures and outputs are somewhat better established than those between inputs and outputs. For example, consistent relationships have been found between measures of how time is used in the classroom and student achievement. Such results lead us to believe both that process indicators are worth developing and that further attempts to refine and extend the analytic relationships which exist should be undertaken. Much of the research on process-outcome relationships has been in the nature of small scale intensive studies of a few classrooms. The availability of data gathered on a larger scale, in a variety of jurisdictions, as part of comprehensive indicator projects can be expected to give new impetus to this area of research. The possibilities for data pooling and sharing, and for national and international collaboration to bring the necessary expertise to this task, should not be disregarded. Good examples of such pooling can be found in epidemiological and treatment studies in medicine, where linkages between major treatment centres for purposes of pooling data are common.

In general, we should not expect too much in the short term from the use of indicator systems to establish causal relationships which can be used in policy decisions. In any case, local studies alone are unlikely to yield the necessary basis for decisions affecting resource allocations. The important point is to begin developing the data base with more modest goals in mind. In time, and with appropriate means of pooling data and developing expertise, much more is likely to be learned about causes of particular outcomes.

### Data Bases

Implementing a full indicator system will require a combination of using existing information, modifying existing programs where necessary, and proposing wholly new data gathering and analysis initiatives. Before looking at the changes needed, it is worth summarizing existing sources, and making brief reference to activities currently under way or under development to broaden the scope of available data. Only computerized data bases are referenced here because these are the only sources readily amenable to statistical summaries and analysis.

Table 1 gives a brief summary of the data bases currently available at the Department of Education. Each of these data bases has been developed independently, within the context of a specific program or requirement within the Department of Education. The need to integrate such efforts and to further develop the information systems of the Department has been apparent for some time. The Department has just embarked on an information technology project, with such integration as a goal. In particular, there is a need to improve the means of information flow to and from schools. For example, data for the high school certification system currently comes from most schools in hard copy form (although some schools have now begun to use floppy disks). Since schools have to prepare this copy in any case, it would make much more sense to have all such data entered at the source and sent through an appropriate network directly to the main records system.

One of the first requirements is therefore for the development of a network which links all schools to a central system.[11] All data assembled at the school level should be transmitted through this network. The Department of Education would assume responsibility for developing indicators and for preparing reports based on these indicators, as well as for the normal operational activities for which the data are collected in the first place (e.g, high school certification, teacher allocations). It would perhaps be appropriate for schools to have limited access to certain data bases or to parts of these appropriate for their own needs.

Looking first at output indicators, the main problem here is not with the status of existing data bases, but rather with the nature of the tests themselves. Substantial changes are required in public examinations, the general nature of which have already been documented. The existing high school certification system is adequate for handling student certification requirements no matter what form any revised tests may take. The major limitation in the system is that it is not capable of dealing with test items themselves or with item level data. From an indicators perspective, this would be one of the most important sources of data to have available. What is required is the development of a supplementary system. Some work has already been done in this area, in conjunction with item banking projects. It would be relatively easy to extend this to the full public examinations system.

As for the CTBS data base, the proposal to replace the CTBS with a set of criterion-referenced tests would render this data base obsolete. Again, however, constructing a new system to meet the requirements of a revised testing program would be relatively easy. More important is the need to link this system with the high school certification system, so that the performance of students could be tracked throughout their school careers.

This leads to the idea of an integrated **student level data base**. In concept, this would see the registration of each student upon entry to kindergarten, and the recording of all indicator data on students as they progress through the system. Something like this has been suggested within the Department of Education but has never been implemented. Such a system could supplant parts of the current Annual General Return, as well as incorporating process and output data. Given the relatively small size of our education system and the recent advances in computer technology, such a system would not be particularly difficult to implement.

While some might see this as an undue centralization of student records, there would be little need to add information which does not already exist or would likely be gathered in some other form in any case. Assuming the appropriate network arrangements, schools could make use of the system to supplant many existing record-keeping practices, and could have the appropriate level of access to the system. The Department of Education would provide a service to schools in providing comprehensive school profiles, as well as using the system for its other purposes.

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[11] It is noted that some schools now send the data for entry to the high school certification system on disk. This has reduced substantially the burden of data entry for this system. Since almost all schools now have access to the appropriate computer equipment, an interim measure would be to have all school-level data sent in this manner.

**Table 1. Existing Local Data Sources.**

| Type of Data | Source | Frequency/ | Level of Initial Collection | Usual Level of Reporting |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Inputs:** | | | | |
| Enrolments | Annual General Return | Annually (September 30) | School | Province/District |
| Teachers | Teacher's Payroll | Continuous | Teacher (individual) | Province/District |
| | School Board Administration System | Unknown | District | Not reported |
| Financial | Audited financial statements | Annually | District | District |
| **Processes:** | | | | |
| **Outputs:** | | | | |
| Public examinations | High School Certification | Annually<br>(Levels I - III) | Student | Province/<br>District<br>School*<br>Student* |
| Standards Testing | CTBS | Annually | Student | Province<br>District<br>School*<br>Student* |
| Satisfaction | Public opinion polls<br>Quality of School Life | 1978, 1893, 1988<br>1990 | Individual adults<br>student | Province/<br>Province<br>Some breakdowns |

Taking this idea a step further, the existing teacher payroll system could be extended to yield an integrated **teacher level data base.** Since the loss of the Statistics Canada teacher system, no data have been gathered on teacher assignments, class sizes, qualifications, and the like, other than that required for payroll purposes. The teacher level system would be much simpler than a student level system, but could be structured along the same lines. Parts of the Annual General Return could also be incorporated into this system.

Finally, the **school level data base** whihc has recently been developed would need to be extended to include not only data aggregated from student and teacher levels but also data which is characteristic of the school itself, such as space, facilities, equipment, and resources. In practice, the school level data base would become the fundamental one for the development of reports. Access by the school to its own data would be important. however, the model assumes that the Department of Education would take major responsibility for the production of school-level reports, and for any comparative analysis.

## Implementation

What has been said thus far suggests that two main areas of developmental work would be required, namely the development of tests, questionnaires, and other data gathering instruments, and the development of the data bases themselves. Logically, the first should precede the second. In practice, however, data base development is both easier and already further advanced than instrument development. Because the development of new tests, in particular, is likely to take considerable time, it is proposed that an interim system be put in place, using existing data, with some modifications, to reach the desired objective of school level reporting. Specific details of how such a system might look are given in the next section.

There has now been considerable experience worldwide in the development of indicator systems. Several things can be learned from this experience. First, there seems to be general acceptance of an input/process/output model of educational indicators. Second, while it is a fairly simple matter to obtain some kinds of indicators, such as resource inputs or achievement on standardized tests, it is much more difficult to develop process indicators or indicators of outputs in areas such as critical thinking or aspects of the affective domain. Third, there are doubts about the extent to which incidators should be used for accountability purposes, given the limitations of our ability to find clear causal relationships between inputs and outputs. Fourth, most indicator systems remain in the initial stages of development. While indicators have been used for descriptive purposes for some time, few educational jurisdictions have any history of using indicators for accountability and improvement. Finally, there are major problems in finding appropriate bases for the comparison of performance. Added to these considerations is the fact that the development of a comprehensive indicator system requires substantial resources, and considerable expertise. The question must be raised as to whether this is a reasonable use of resources, and whether the necessary professional skills can be assembled locally.

The most reasonable approach to development would seem to be a staged one, beginning with a consolidation and enhancement of what now exists and proceeding to successively more complex developmental work in concert with national and international developments. Before proposing specific stages, it is useful to identify a number of tasks which would have to be performed in attempting to implement the system:

1. Enhance the existing school profiles data base by including data from all current sources, and aggregating or disaggregating as necessary. For example, existing financial data could fairly easily be broken down by school, in critical areas where school differences are to be expected.
2. Prepare an annual report consisting initially of enhanced versions of the **Profile 90** document, expanding this report as subsequent developments occur.
3. Gather demographic and socio-economic data for each school to enhance the profiles and to assist in interpreting school level data.

4. Adopt a policy of comparative public reporting by school, using the enhanced school profiles as the base, and develop reporting procedures.
5. Develop processes for follow-up and improvement of school performance.
6. Accelerate the pace of reform of the public examinations, with particular emphasis on improving validity, setting standards, and improving the ability to make comparisons over time and with other jurisdictions.
7. Develop public opinion instruments and establish sampling frames and polling procedures.
8. Develop school-based computer network and automate most data gathering functions, including the Annual General Return, High School Certification, attendance and attrition. The network could also be used to allow access to school profiles and other data.
9. Establish standards, develop criterion-referenced tests, and implement a cyclical testing schedule. (CTBS should be retained until this is completed).
10. Develop attitude and satisfaction indicators and survey procedures
11. Develop process indicators and procedures for gathering process data.

Obviously, all of this establishes a heavy agenda for any accountability project. It should be noted, however, that several of the proposed activities are either already under way or have been advocated in other studies. Reform of the public examinations, for example, represents an urgent priority independently of any overall accountability system. Similarly, work is already being done in the area of school improvement. There is also no need to undertake these activities in isolation. Much of the work can proceed in concert with national and international developments such as the OECD and CMEC projects, in which the Province would be expected to participate in any case.

The greatest problems to be expected are those associated with the development of criterion-referenced tests and process measures. Establishing standards which are linked to the local curriculum, comparable to national and international norms, and inclusive of higher order thinking capabilities is the most difficult part of the task of developing achievement tests. Finding ways to gather valid and reliable data at reasonable cost is the major challenge in the process domain.

It is proposed that the entire accountability and indicators operation be the responsibility of the Department of Education. Indeed, it might be argued that this should be one of the main functions of the Department, no matter what model is adopted for other aspects such as curriculum development or public control of the system. Many jurisdictions are, in fact, moving to a model in which substantial local control is allowed over inputs and processes, as long as an adequate level of outcome is achieved. This is not the place to discuss the merits of this type of model. what does need to be discussed is the current capabilities of the Department, and the changes needed if the proposed agenda is to be carried out.

Specifically, it is proposed that the activities identified above be conducted in three phases. **Phase 1** would include the first five of these activities. This phase could be carried out with almost no increase in existing staff or capability in the Department. What would be required is substantial coordination among the various units now engaged in data gathering and analysis. In particular, there is a need to merge the two units of the Department now labelled **Evaluation and High School Certification** and **Planning and Research.** Data from other branches, such as Financial Administration or Teachers' Payroll could be captured by the unit responsible for accountability, without any specific reorganization. What would be required, however, would be sufficient coordination to allow needed data to be gathered through the routine procedures used in payroll, finance, and other areas. For the fifth activity, that of developing follow-up procedures for school improvement, an extension of the ongoing **School Improvement Progrsm** would be required. It would be desirable to draw into the process teachers, as well as representatives of the public, in a process which should lead to something resembling an accreditation procedure for schools. The whole of Phase I could be completed reasonably quickly at relatively modest marginal cost, since most of the staff required is currently in place, and most of the data already exists.

**Phase II** would consist of activities 6 through 8 of the list. The first activity, reform of public examinations, is already under way on a small scale. Some staff have already been employed in this area. This work could therefore proceed in parallel with Phase I. Detailed studies of procedures and costs have already been carried out (Crocker and Spain, 1986; Crocker, 1988). It has been estimated, for example, that an overhauled public examination system could be operated at no higher cost than the current system. However, about $ 1 million would be required for developmental work over three years (Crocker, 1988).

As for public opinion polling, this is a fairly straightforward activity which could be contracted to an external agency. The cost of a fairly comprehensive poll, which would include instrument development, data gathering, and reporting, is estimated at about $ 75,000. Assuming no change in instruments, subsequent polls could be conducted for perhaps half of this amount. Any such polls would be expected to tie in with polls planned as part of the CMEC project. This could be expected to reduce the developmental costs somewhat. Development of the proposed school based computer network would be the most expensive part of this phase. It is not possible to give cost estimates, because of the technical nature of this activity. A network of more than five hundred stations would not be inexpensive. It should be noted, however, that networks now exist in the province which could be used as models, in order to save developmental costs. Also, there would be some cost savings in data entry, especially in existing operating areas such as high school certification.

The final three activities might be considered as comprising **Phase III.** From a developmental perspective, this would be by far the most difficult phase to implement. For this reason, the problem of test development deserves further comment. Before donig this, a final point on timing may be made. In practice, work on all phases of the system could proceed in parallel, assuming that sufficient resources could be put in place. In particular, many improvements can be brought about in our testing practices before the limitations of existing knowledge about testing are reached.

## Cautionary Notes on Testing

The increased attention to testing for accountability has been accompanied by many cautions about the limits of testing (Darling-Hammond, 1991; Madaus, 1991; Shepard, 1991). Many of these cautions have been proposed in the United States in the context of the **America 2000** initiative, as doubts increase as to whether the goals of that initiative are appropriate or whether they can be met. Several arguments underly the cautions. These include limitations of what we know about test development and the narrowing effect of testing, the lack of involvement and potential alienation of teachers, and the inability of accountability testing to overcome underlying causes of low achievement such as poverty, dysfunctional families, or language.

The argument about limitations of testing takes several forms. First, there is the notion that any new tests would simply be new high stakes, nationally mandated, versions of existing standardized tests. A related argument is that such tests would be reduced to the lowest common set of basic skills which could be negotiated to ensure that most students could succeed. At the opposite extreme, it has been argued that what is important for future success is high school graduation, not performance on a standardized test, and that depriving students of a diploma because they cannot pass the test is a retrograde step. Finally, the assumption has been made that the tests would drive the curriculum, resulting in a restriction of what is taught to what can be measured.

None of these points are necessary characteristics of a testing program. It may be that in the context of a large and diverse society such as that of the United States or Canada, the range of problems is so immense that no nationally mandated test could be made to work. What we are thinking of here, however, is a much more focused enterprise. A common curriculum already exists in this province, and it has been proposed that any tests to be developed be keyed to this curriculum. It is possible to go further and argue that the driving force for higher standards of performance is the curriculum and not the tests, and that tests should be used to ensure that the goals of the curriculum are being met. The aim is to construct test which are reasonably valid representations of the curriculum, rather than to make the curriculum conform to the narrow requirements of tests which resemble existing standardized tests. In any case, an argument can be made that some narrowing of the curriculum, especially at the high school level, is desirable. What would be undesirable would be a restriction of the curriculum to low level cognitive operations, in order to meet the limitations of a test.

As for the argument that having a high school diploma is more important than performance on tests, this is probably an artifact of the use of high school **graduation** rather than high school **performance** as the primary criterion for selection into entry level occupations. It is likely that if the selection criteria were to shift to performance, the value of a high school diploma in its own right would be diminished. This seems to be an appropriate development if the broader aim is to improve achievement. In fact, the notion of what constitutes **dropping out** of school could undergo a dramatic shift if we were less concerned with the completion of grade 12 as an end in itself, and focused instead on hat has been attained by students at whatever level they terminate their secondary school experience.

Finally, it is obvious that no performance-based accountability system can, in itself, overcome underlying external causes of poor school performance. What an accountability system can do is draw attention to severe problems, and provide some basis for policy decisions which might help solve these problems. If the school is to be the basic accountability unit, the social context in which a particular school functions must be used to interpret the results attained by that school, and to develop policies aimed at ameliorating causes of poor performance, whether or not these originate in the school itself.

### Test Development

Although it is not the purpose of this paper to describe the specifics of a test development program, several points need to be made about this issue. First, we have the question of the involvement of teachers in the testing process. Second, the problem of anchoring tests to national and international standards must be solved. Third, brief mention should be made of the potential use of an emerging alternative to classical test theory (generally referred to as item response theory). Finally, the question of over testing needs to be examined.

The first questions stems from the risk of alienating teachers if high stakes tests are imposed on them. It has already ben noted that test development would have to be preceded (not followed) by a standards setting process, designed to delineate the knowledge and skills required at particular levels. This is where teachers should be expected to make a substantial contribution. The writer's experience in a recent item banking project suggests that teachers can become the primary developers of standards, and that teachers can dissociate themselves from their normal concerns that their own students do well when faced with the task of identifying expectations and setting standards. There is little to suggest, for example, that teachers would attempt to ensure that standards are kept as low as possible, in order to create the illusion of high success for their students (or themselves).

In practical terms, teachers are the most obvious group to engage in test development. While not generally expert in psychometrics, teachers could be expected to know much more than testing experts about what can reasonably be expected of students, the specifics of the curriculum as taught, opportunity to learn, and other important practical matters. What is to be avoided, of course, is taking this to the point at which the existing curriculum, or existing expectations, should determine the ultimate content of the tests. The best way to avoid this is to have test development go hand in hand with curriculum development, so that expectations for teaching are made congruent with expectations for testing.

In any case, it can be expected that tests which are to be judged valid over a wide range of outcomes would likely contain components which would require teacher administration. Performance-based tests are the most obvious examples of this. Taking this idea a step further, any test designed to escape the format constraints of typical standardized instruments could be expected to require a substantial amount of manual marking or, more important, professional judgement in assigning scores. If such tests are to be at all cost-effective teachers might be expected to play a significant role in marking. Although it is not common, it would quite feasible for teachers to mark the tests, and to develop a moderation procedure, based on panel marking of samples of tests, which would ensure that standards are maintained.

On the matter of anchoring tests to national and international standards, there are several ways in which this can be approached. It can be expected that as the various major indicator projects move ahead, there will be more sharing than ever before of test curriculum objectives, performance expectations, test items, and results from various areas. This can be expected to enrich the testing literature, and to provide further bases for comparison. It is not necessary to wait for this to occur, however. Several comprehensive testing programs already exist in Canada, which could form a rich source of information. Some provinces, most notably British Columbia, already publish comprehensive reports of their testing programs, including details such as item performance and standards for judging level of satisfaction with performance. Other provinces keep their results within the system, but might well be prepared to realise results for comparative purposes, on a reciprocal basis. Large scale testing programs, such as the IEA studies or the IAEP can be expected to continue. In the long term, it would not be far-fetched to suggest that a large pool of high quality test items would become available, complete with data on student performance in various parts of the world. Even in the near term, it would not be necessary to start from scratch to develop the required standards and tests.

The third point concerns the use of what has come to be known as item response theory (sometimes also referred to as latent trait theory) as the basis for test development. Classical test theory, as applied throughout most of this century, rests on certain assumptions which limit the use of tests to populations similar to those used as the basis for developing the test. Most standardized tests, for example, are **normed** on a particular population, and it is assumed that their use would be restricted to populations similar to the norming group.

The essential feature of item response theory, which overcomes this limitation, is the ability to make a connection between the probability of answering an item correctly and the ability of level of achievement of the respondent. The basic assumption underlying the theory is that the domain being tested is represented by a single **latent trait**, for which performance can be estimated from the pattern of response on the test items. Given certain information about a respondent and about an item, it is possible to derive a function which represents the probability that a respondent with given abilities will respond correctly to the item. This function (known as the item characteristic curve) permits calibration of items in such a way that parallel tests can be constructed from any set of items referenced to the latent trait.

The mathematical models underlying item response theory are considerably more complex than those underlying classical test theory. There remains considerable controversy over whether school subjects can be represented by a single latent trait, and over the particular item characteristics to be included in the model. More important, the theory does not solve the basic problem of improving test validity. Despite the advantages in being able to tailor tests to particular populations, there seems to be sufficient reason to recommend against the use of item response theory at this time. The problems of standards setting, validity, and reporting are sufficient to occupy those who will be charged with the test development task for some time to come.

The final point concerns the problem of over-testing. As demands for accountability have grown, students and school have been subjected to a growing array of externally-administered tests of various sorts. These are added to the normal unit and term tests conducted by schools themselves,and to any additional testing required by school boards (some boards, for example, conduct their own standardized testing programs, typically using CTBS in grades not being tested by the Department of Education). For this reason, it must be argued that any testing to be carried out as part of the accountability function should **replace** some of the testing now being done, or should be conducted in cycles which would avoid adding to the test burden.

Although it has already been suggested that the proposed new criterion-referenced tests replace the CTBS, it is to be expected that the frequency and scope of these tests would be greater than for the CTBS. At present, any given group of students would be subjected to the CTBS only once in their elementary school careers. This could be increased to as often as three times under the proposed program. One way to compensate for this increase would be to reduce or eliminate entirely any supplementary testing done by the school boards. Another would be to reduce the amount of school-based testing. The recent Mathematics/ Science Task Force report, for example, recommended that not more than three tests per year be used in assessing student performance in a subject. While it is not suggested that schools discontinue assessment for diagnostic and formative purposes, it is not unreasonable to expect that the number of test occasions for purposes determining final grades be reduced.

### System-Level Accountability

Thus far, the focus of discussion has been on the school as the basic unit of accountability. However, the basic accountability principle applies equally to all other agencies responsible for providing educational services. Hers we can concern ourselves only with agencies which have some form of statutory responsibilities. The primary agencies of this type are the school boards, the Department of Education, and the Denominational Education Councils. Other major agencies such as the NTA or the School Trustees Association would be excluded because they are not part of the statutory system. Also excluded from this discussion are the post-secondary institutions, because these are not directly within the mandate of the Royal Commission. The notable exception to this would be Memorial University in its capacity as the only teacher education institution in the province.

The next level in the system beyond the school is the school board. Under the current organization of the system, boards have considerable authority and responsibility in such crucial areas as employment of teachers, program coordination, financial management, and provision of facilities. Under a school-based accountability system, there are strong arguments for shifting some of the responsibility in these areas to the school itself. This, in fact, is one of the primary features of a number of major initiatives by legislatures and senior educational authorities in many parts of the world. Since it is not within the scope of this report to make proposals for transfers of responsibility, it must be assumed that the system will retain many of its current features.

If this is so, then the first point to be made is that school boards will retain major responsibility for ensuring that the schools within their jurisdiction meet the expected standards of performance, and that school improvement will become a more explicit function of the school boards. To the extent that personnel, facilities, instructional materials, and other important inputs remain under board control, the board can exert considerable leverage in influencing what happens in particular schools. the question of board accountability can therefore be seen as one of determining whether the school improvement mandate is being properly carried out.

At one level, board accountability can be seen as simply as the extension of school accountability. For example, output indicators can be aggregated to the board level, and used to determine whether students within the board's jurisdiction are performing at the expected standard. To a limited degree, this is being done now, with the reporting of district comparisons on public examinations and CTBS. however, the available indicators have been used to date only in a descriptive sense. While there is considerable ongoing debate about inequalities in the financial resources available to boards, relative to their costs, there is almost no discussion of the performance of students within particular boards, and of the possible use of resources to bring about changes in performance.

The first shift in thinking therefore should be to focus on performance using indicators aggregated to the school board level. If a given school is below the expected performance standards, it is the board's responsibility to work towards improvement. If schools in a district are generally below expectations, then both the public which elects the board and the more senior levels of the system should begin to focus on this problem. If the problem is related to overall resources available to the board, then the Province should use its overall control of resources to address the problem for the board as a whole. If the problem is related to factors within the control of the board itself, then the performance of those responsible for managing the affairs of the board should be called into question. The greatest difficulty arises with factors external to the system. To the extent that problems are related to socioeconomic factors, community isolation, declining population, or other factors beyond the board's control, there is little point in holding the board responsible.

The indicator system should be capable of providing most of the basic data necessary to determine how a board is performing. What is needed is a mechanism for interpreting the data, and for judging performance. It is proposed that this be done through periodic assessments conducted by an independent review panel. Every five years would perhaps be an appropriate period. It is proposed that the panels be established by the Department of Education, and that they be fully independent of the school board itself. Panels should consist of representatives of the public, the teaching profession, and the Department of Education, and should be supported by Department staff. It would be desirable to include on panels individuals from outside the province, to help ensure independence. As a rough outline, a panel review might be expected to proceed in steps as follows

1. The school board would prepare its own self-assessment, indicating its goals for the period under review and its progress towards these goals.
2. The Department of Education would assemble a profile of the board's performance based on data from the indicator system.
3. The Department of Education would appoint the panel.
4. The panel would review the documentation, visit the board office and schools, and allow for public participation (including a local public opinion survey).
5. The panel would prepare a report, which would be made available to the public as well as to the board and the Department of Education.
6. The Department would decide what follow-up action is required. Such action could range from assisting the board in problem areas to imposing sanctions on the board and its officials.

Almost exactly the same mechanism could be used for accountability at other levels of the system. In particular, the Department of Education itself, and the Denominational Education Councils should be subject to the same type of periodic panel review. In the case of the Department of Education, however, while the indicator system would still provide basic data, the focus would have to shift from specific indicators to broader issues such as curriculum development policies and practices, services to schools, teacher certification and other services and functions of the Department. In fact the quality of the accountability system itself would have to be part of such an assessment. Similarly, the performance of the DEC's would have to be examined in relation to the mandate to establish school boards, distribute capital funding allocations, certify teachers, and maintain religious education programs. It should be noted that the general principle and mechanism of periodic reviews would apply no matter what changes are made in the functions of the various agencies. Only the specific functions or services to be examined would change.

A specific comment is required on the application of the accountability principle to teacher education. Since the statutory agencies, particularly the Department of Education and the Denominational Education Councils, have responsibility for teacher certification, and because school quality can be expected to be closely associated with teacher quality, it should follow that those responsible for teacher education should be accountable to these agencies for the quality of the teachers produced. On the other hand, Memorial University, like other universities, has a governing structure designed explicitly to ensure that the content of its programs is not subject to political control. It should be remembered that an attempt by the provincial government some years ago to initiate a review of teacher eduction was forestalled when the university decided to conduct its own review. In other provinces, most notably recently in Ontario, reviews of teacher education have been conducted without an apparent threat to university independence because such reviews have not been linked to the program of a single university.

The question then, is how to bring teacher education into the accountability process. In the extreme, of course, the province could use its certification power to force teacher education to meet particular criteria. In some ways, this is done regularly as certification requirements lead to changes in demand for particular courses or programs. However, the quality of programs, or the performance standards of teachers are not subject to assessment through this process. The most obvious solution would be for the University to establish its own review process similar to that described above. Indeed, this type of review is common in other programs, particularly those subject to accreditation procedures. A more long term prospect would be to establish an accreditation system, particularly one which establishes national standards for teacher education.

## VI. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This report is one of a series of background reports commissioned by the Royal Commission on the Delivery of Programs and Services in Primary, Elementary, and Secondary Education. The problem under consideration was that of developing an accountability system designed to improve the quality of schooling in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador. Specifically, the Commission requested that the report focus on five issues; 1) a rationale for accountability, 2) indicators for assessing performance, 3) a model for an accountability system, 4) implications for implementing the model, and 5) strategies and processes to facilitate the introduction of an accountability system.

Accountability and educational indicators is a topical issue in many educational jurisdictions, and a substantial body of literature has recently emerged on the issue. The scope of this literature ranges from basic work on assessment of performance through specific descriptions of accountability systems being developed in various local jurisdictions, as well as nationally and internationally, to critiques of the movement and discussions of the pitfalls in using available indicators for accountability purposes.

This report has been based on a review of major national and international indicator projects, an examination of indicators and data bases available locally, and an assessment of underlying principles of accountability. An accountability model has been proposed, based on the common concept that the system should be viewed in terms of inputs, processes and outputs. It has also been proposed that the school be considered as the basic accountability unit. Some specific indicators have been identified, and a phased developmental process proposed. This section brings together the highlights of the report, and formulates specific recommendations for consideration by the Royal Commission

### Rationale for Accountability

The need for accountability in the educational system is based on the following major considerations:

- Ongoing need for improvement of performance
- Need to maintain and enhance standards
- Increased importance of education for economic development
- Demand for efficiency in light of diminishing resources
- Public need for information on the system
- Assurance to public of educational quality
- Assurance of political responsibility for policy decisions

All levels of the educational system (schools, school boards, Department of Education, denominational authorities, etc.) are accountable to the public both directly and through the provincial government. Specifically, the school is identified as the basic unit of accountability for most purposes. Other levels are accountable for specific functions and services required to ensure that the schools can maintain high levels of performance.

Schools and other agencies should be accountable for:

- Efficient use of public funds
- Providing a safe and comfortable setting for students
- Using the most effective means of promoting student learning
- Student achievement and other outcomes

## Educational Indicators?

Educational indicators are statistics which tell us something about the performance of the educational system. Good indicators reflect central features of the system, are valid and reliable, and measure factors which can be influenced by educational policy decisions.

Some of the uses of educational indicators are:

- Description of the system
- Comparison with other systems
- Establishing trends over time
- Developing analytic relationships among resource inputs, educational processes, and student outcomes
- Combining all of these for purposes of accountability and decision-making

Some of the problems in developing and using indicators are:

- Establishing validity and reliability
- Making appropriate comparisons
- Finding causal relationships strong enough to use in policy-making
- Time and cost in data gathering and analysis
- Availability of local expertise
- Avoiding misuses which could unfairly affect personnel or result in wasted resources
- Finding appropriate reporting mechanisms
- Security and privacy problems in maintaining individual level data bases.

## An Indicator Model

It has become commonplace to divide indicators into three main categories, based on the concept that resources and other **inputs** can be used to support certain activities or **processes** which, in turn, yield various types of **outputs.** More specific groups of variables under this **input ⇒ process ⇒ output** model are shown in Table 2

Table 2. Examples of Inputs, Processes and Outputs.

| Inputs | Processes | Outputs |
|---|---|---|
| Enrolments | Class sizes | Achievement (basic skills |
| Financial resources | Teacher assignments | Achievement (higher order cognitive processes) |
| Personnel resources | Instructional resources | Student satisfaction |
| Facilities | Curriculum quality | Public satisfaction |
| | Instructional processes | Participation and involvement |
| | | Completion rates |
| | | Future success of students |
| | | Literacy rates |

### General Principles in Developing and Using Indicators

The following general statements represent the principles underlying the specific proposals for development and implementation of an accountability system:

1. The basic unit for computing and reporting most educational indicators should be the school.
2. School level indicators, as well as district and provincial summaries should be reported to the public.
3. Of the various uses of indicators, improving performance is the most important.
4. School staff and administration should be held accountable for poor performance which can be traced to school factors.
5. Mechanisms should be developed to assist schools in overcoming problems revealed by indicators.
6. Outcome indicators should be accompanied by appropriate performance standards, time trends, national and international comparisons, or other or other appropriate means of interpreting the local results.
7. Relationships between input, process, and output indicators should be sought.
8. Policy makers should be made aware of limitations in validity, reliability, and comprehensiveness of the indicators used, but should not be deterred from action because indicators are imperfect.
9. All existing provincial data gathering activities, including current testing programs, should be integrated into an indicator system.
10. Every opportunity should be sought to link the local indicator system with similar systems in other parts of Canada and the rest of the developed world. In particular, achievement tests should be anchored by including items for which performance statistics are available from other sources.

### Implementation

Implementation of a system would require that a number of tasks be undertaken. These tasks have been grouped so as to allow for a three phase approach to developing the system. The three phases represent successive stages of complexity, developmental effort, and cost. In addition certain activities, particularly those associated with test development, cannot be pursued in isolation from developments elsewhere. The expectation is that as indicator projects are further developed nationally and internationally, the prospects for extending and refining our measurement.

**Phase I Activities**

1. Enhance the existing school profiles data base by including data from all current sources, and aggregating or desegregating as necessary. For example, existing financial data could fairly easily be broken down by school, in critical areas where school differences are to be expected.
2. Prepare an annual report consisting initially of enhanced versions of the **Profile 90** document, expanding this report as subsequent developments occur.
3. Gather demographic and socio-economic data for each school to enhance the profiles and to assist in interpreting school level data.
4. Adopt a policy of comparative public reporting by school, using the enhanced school profiles as the base, and develop reporting procedures.
5. Develop processes for follow-up and improvement of school performance.

**Phase II Activities**

6. Accelerate the pace of reform of the public examinations, with particular emphasis on improving validity, setting standards, and improving the ability to make comparisons over time and with other jurisdictions.
7. Develop public opinion instruments and establish sampling frames and polling procedures.
8. Develop school-based computer network and automate most data gathering functions, including the Annual General Return, High School Certification, attendance and attrition. The network could also be used to allow access to school profiles and other data.

**Phase III Activities**

9. Establish standards, develop criterion-referenced tests, and implement a cyclical testing schedule. (CTBS should be retained until this is completed).
10. Develop attitude and satisfaction indicators and survey procedures
11. Develop process indicators and procedures for gathering process data.

## Implementation Problems

It must be recognized in all of this that detailed consideration of accountability and indicators is a very recent development in education. Most of the major projects and most local efforts date back no more than five years or so. Much remains to be learned about what should be considered as important indicators, about the use of indicators for accountability purposes, and about the measurement process itself. Particular limitations exist in small jurisdictions such as this province because of limitations in local expertise and because the resources required to develop a comprehensive system are proportionally greater than in a large system. On the other hand, certain features of the local system, such as the existence of a relatively centralized testing system, the activities of the Department of Education in data gathering, and the relatively small scale of the date collection effort can be advantageous.

Specific problems or obstacles to implementation may be identified as follows:

- High cost of developing criterion-based outcome measures
- Limitations in measurement and analysis
- Burden of data collection
- Limitations of local expertise

- Problems of national and international comparability
- Problems of improving performance when not all factors influencing performance are under school control

**Recommendations**

1. That all existing data gathering efforts, including operational systems such as teachers' payroll and public examinations, be treated as part of an integrated indicator system, to be used for accountability purposes.
2. That schools be treated as the basic units for data gathering, analysis, and reporting.
3. That the Department of Education assume responsibility for establishing and maintaining the indicator system.
4. That data bases be established at three basic levels, student, teacher, and school, and that the school data base be considered the fundamental one for reporting purposes.
5. That a set of performance criteria be established at appropriate transition levels in schooling.
6. That the CTBS be phased out and replaced by a set of curriculum-specific criterion referenced tests developed locally but anchored nationally through the use of items from externally developed tests for which performance characteristics are known.
7. That the process of revising public examinations along lines recommended in several earlier reports be accelerated, and that public examination results be used as an indicator of school performance.
8. That appropriate indicators of pre-instructional and instructional processes be developed.
9. That public opinion polls be conducted at regular intervals, with the aim of measuring level of public satisfaction with the schools.
10. That indicators of student satisfaction, and of expectations and aspirations be developed.
11. That the province participate in national and international indicator programs or other comparative studies as opportunities arise.
12. That the province enter into agreements with other provinces or with national agencies which would facilitate sharing of test items and other information necessary for comparative analysis.
13. That school boards, the Department of Education, the Denominational Councils and the Faculty of Education undergo independent reviews at five to seven year intervals.

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*PART V*

# Critical Issues in Education

Few in this Province would argue that the amount of instructional time in schools today is adequate. Whether the amount allocated is insufficient or is inappropriately used is a moot point. During a typical school year, considerable instructional time is lost resulting in a wide variance between allocated and engaged instructional time. The importance of time cannot be overestimated. It is founded on a number of well-established assumptions: time is valuable; instructional time is a valuable determinant of educational achievement; schooling has a positive effect on learning; and, learning is acquired at different rates and therefore students need different amounts of instructional time. In chapter 12, Alice Collins was asked to identify the factors which contribute to a loss of instructional time in school, describe the effects such losses have on achievement, and recommend alternative ways of increasing engaged time.

At no time in our history has the role of teachers changed so rapidly. Many experienced teachers began their careers during a time when teachers largely determined what went on in the classroom, discipline was physical in nature, educational goals were typically academic, parents delegated all authority to the school, courses were few and basic, special needs went largely unidentified, and student success was frequently measured by how far one went in school. Now teachers find themselves in an arena where what goes on in the classroom is determined largely by others; parents expectations and demands of schools, in particular of teachers, are placing enormous strains on the workforce; discipline is seen as ineffectual; educational goals include social and psychological objectives; more and more courses and the integration of special needs students lay increased responsibility and stress upon the workforce; and, student success is measured by a whole host of factors. In chapter 13, Eric Burry and Reginald Bonnell were asked to prepare a comprehensive profile on the complexity of teaching, an analysis of the changing roles and expectations of teachers, and an examination of the factors which affect those changes.

There has been an increasing awareness in recent years, both within the aboriginal community and without, that the school system in this and other provinces has not served to preserve the culture and language of native people, nor to foster pride in the native heritage. In chapter 14, Frank Riggs was asked to prepare an issues paper which would outline the concerns of aboriginal peoples in this province, explore options for addressing those concerns, and propose recommendations.

Chapter 12

# THE USE OF INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

Alice Collins

The loss of instructional time is rightly viewed by the stakeholders in education as a problem. While there are no simple, sure-fire solutions to the problem, research in this area provides a basis for addressing problems related to instructional time.

The purpose of this paper is to review the literature on instructional time with reference to identification of the factors which contribute to a loss of instructional time, to describe the effects such losses have on achievement and to recommend alternative ways of increasing engaged time.

## Review of the literature

### Instruction

The terms commonly used, often interchangeably, to refer to school time are: instructional time, engaged time, time on task. Before proceeding to address each of these in turn, the designation 'instruction' requires clarification.

The term 'instruction' is problematic for although it is in some way related to teaching, learning is not necessarily an outcome of instruction. Conversely, learning can occur without, or in spite of teaching, leaving the 'concept' of instruction somewhat tenuous, to say nothing of instructional time. At best, we can perhaps make the link between instruction and teaching. Good (1973) points out that at the most general level, instruction is synonymous with teaching. This relationship between teaching and instruction has been variously described. Stiles (1960) and Good (1973) describe instruction as a subset of the act of teaching while conversely, Weil and Murphy (1982) describe teaching as a subset of instruction. In a broad sense, it is generally agreed that instruction 'conceptualizes' teaching (Anderson & Burns, 1989, Gump, 1967, Weil & Murphy, 1982, Barr & Dreeben, 1977, Stodolsky, 1988).

A synopsis of the main components of instruction as presented in the literature includes: planning, subject matter, activity, interaction, outcomes. Gagné (1976) refers to the 'phases of instruction' which include the motivational, apprehending, acquisition, retention, recall, generalization, performance, feedback. Anderson and Burns (1989) refer to the six components of instruction: subject matter, task demands, instructional format, grouping arrangement , time, classroom behaviours and interactions. Green (1971) distinguishes between the various activities of teaching of which training, conditioning, instructing and indoctrinating are subsets. While instruction is teaching, teaching is not necessarily instruction, for example, training a dog is teaching but not instructing. Green proposes that instructing involves some kind of conversation, reasoning, weighing evidence, judging. Or put another way, training leads to promotion of habits, while instruction leads to acquisition of knowledge and belief. Berliner and Rosenshire (1977) refer to direct instruction as a set of teaching behaviours that focus on academic matters in which goals are clear to students, time is sufficient and continuous, content coverage is extensive, student performance is monitored, questions are at a low cognitive level producing correct answers, and feedback is immediate and academic. The teacher controls instructional goals, chooses appropriate learning materials and determines pacing.

This research notwithstanding, Crocker *et al.* (19 ) found that at the level of the pupil, while instruction of the whole class is dominant, pupils spend much of their time working alone. The phrase 'instructional time' does not strictly apply, yet it is an aspect of engaged time. Instruction then for the purposes of this paper, will be understood broadly as a teacher-directed learning situation in which pupils are engaged whether in individual, small group or whole group learning.

### Time as applied to instruction

While there are many components of instruction, in itself an ambiguous term, time as one of those components is also ambiguous.

Time is needed to instruct, but there are various approaches to the application. There is a straightforward temporal application to a task, duration (Weil & Murphy, 1982), amount of content covered during that time (Barr & Dreeban, 1983), and pacing of instruction (Gump, 1967; Stodolsky 1988).

Berliner (1979) distinguishes between allocated time (the time a teacher provides for instruction in a particular content area), engaged time (the time a student is attending to instruction in a particular content area) and academic learning time (the time a student is engaged with instructional materials or activities that are at an easy level of difficulty for that student). Findings indicate that some teachers allocate considerably more time instructing in particular content areas than other teachers, engaged time lacks meaning, and there is a wide range of academic learning time. Dejnozka (1983) equates time-on-task and academic learning time as the number of minutes in a day that an individual learner is actively working on instructional tasks.

Goodlad (1984) has made a number of observations with regard to instructional time: wide variations from school to school and classroom to classroom on the use of time; roughly 70-75% of time available is actually used on instruction within classrooms; observation and documentation of instructional time is complex. Despite the complexity it appears that in elementary classrooms more time is devoted to certain subjects, namely language arts and mathematics, whereas science and social studies are short-changed. It is even more difficult to determine the amount of time spent in the areas of art, physical education and music which appear to receive considerably less time. We should keep in mind here that Goodlad's study is of American schools and the latter application with regard to music and physical education will not apply to elementary schools which have music and physical education specialists whose times are scheduled.

### Summary

Instructional time is a nebulous term, complex to document, and is one, but only one of the components of instruction.

## Synopsis of Research on Achievement and Time

**The complexity of the terms notwithstanding, research indicates that there is a positive relationship between time and instruction.**

For a synopsis of the earliest studies on time, see Borg (1980). The standard models for studying the use of time in the classroom are: Carroll (1963) who proposed that time needed is related to time spent, followed by Bloom (1974) who advanced the concept of mastery learning in relation to time, and Wiley and Harnischfeger (1974) who further refined Carroll's model where time spent is composed of exposure time, active learning time and usable exposure time.

The single most comprehensive project which addressed learning and time was the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES) funded by the California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing and the National Institute of Education. This was a six year project from 1972-78. The BTES researchers defined Academic Learning time (ALT) as the time spent on a task by a student that she/he can perform and leads to gains in achievement. ALT comprised allocated time, student engagement, and student success. The finding substantiated earlier studies: persistent and moderate relationship between time and achievement; other factors are important, for example, feedback, interaction, structuring the lesson, quality of instruction. The BTES concept of schooling focuses on the amount of instructional time to which students are exposed in school and the amount of time they spend learning. According to Denham (1980), a major contribution of the BTES is the notion of measuring learning as it occurs, without waiting for achievement tests. While ALT was shown to correlate with achievement, it adds the dimension of measuring progress in an on-going manner. BTES also showed that there are practical ways that research can inform use of time in classrooms and schools. Principals and teachers can be made aware of their management and how it leads to loss of instructional time. (See also Goodlad, 1984 for this notion.) Pre-service teachers ought to be exposed to this concept in classroom management components of the teacher education program.

Berliner and Rosenshire (1977) refer to a cluster of variables, called direct instructional variables which relate consistently to achievement. One of these is time. There are a number of other variables including monitoring by the teacher, content covered, questioning and feedback. Time then, is one, but only one component of achievement.

Frederick and Walberg's review (1980) of learning as a function of time or quantity of instruction found the following: over long periods of time (number of school years) the results show a modest but persistent association between outcome measure and time; time variables in days of instruction demonstrate an inconsistent relationship to outcomes; studies of effects of hours of classes indicate a rather moderate but persistent connection between time spent on content and achievement; the research studies that looked at the effects of minutes of study within the school day reported modest relationship[s] between the variable and achievement. Walberg and Frederick (1982) claim that studies show moderate and positive relationships between instructional time and learning. They list 34 significant variables related to time, eg. length of school year, years of schooling, opportunity to learn, lateness and interruptions. It is a complex issue and tally of time lost and spent is only one piece of the puzzle relating to achievement. Time is necessary but not sufficient. Other variables must be factored in, for example, how people learn, quality of instruction.

Walberg (cited in Barrett, 1990) identifies nine educational productivity factors. Three address personal characteristics: ability, chronological development and motivation; four have to do with psychological environments: home life, the classroom social group, the peer culture and T.V. viewing. Only two have to do with instruction: quality of teaching (includes a broad range from curriculum to methods) and finally the amount of time students are engaged in learning. Improvements at the margins (Barrett, 1990) is perhaps the best that can be hoped for with modest changes in any of the factors including time.

Achievement then is related to many variables: the student, the quality or method of instruction, the learning and social environment. One of the variables is time which in turn can be viewed in a number of ways: length of time, how time is spent, what the time is spent on, student allocated time. Achievement may also be related to extra-classroom engagement. Holmes and Croll (1989) show that levels of time on homework had a fairly strong positive association with academic achievement.

Approaches to increasing instructional time have been varied. The most simplistic and prevalent response has been to increase the length of the school year and school day. Crocker (1989) recommends increasing the length of the school year by 10 days. *A Nation At Risk* (1983) called for a longer school day and longer school year as well as more effective use of the existing school day. *The Nation Responds* (1984) indicates local district school initiatives which include working with teachers and students on enhancing use of time.

Stallings (1980) argues that increasing time is not sufficient and reports that student learning depends on how available time is used, not just the amount of time available. She distinguishes between interactive on-task instruction time and noninteractive on-task instruction time, where the former related positively to achievement, the latter negatively. Examples of noninteractive time include marking, managing, setting instruction; interactive includes giving feedback, having students read aloud, work and talk in groups. Teachers can be instructed in using time on interactive instruction. Croll and Moses (1988) argue that there is an association between teaching methods and time on task. Classrooms which have higher levels of whole-class interaction have considerably higher levels of pupil time on task than classrooms with lower levels of whole-class interaction. Similarly, Karweit (1984) argues that extending the school day and year is not the answer. She presents strategies which include making teachers more aware of loss and better use of time, and points to the other factors which may be greater contributors to achievement or lack of it.

Goodlad (1984) suggests that teachers and schools explore different uses of time; for example, it may be appropriate to block time for some subjects such as art as well as different applications of time through integration in the curriculum. Subjects then do "double duty" where reading and writing for example are a designated part of science and social studies. Further, Goodlad (1984) refers to assuring a minimum number of hours in the school week and using them efficiently for instructional purposes.

School principals and teachers can be self-conscious about efficient use of students' time in school and teachers need to become more aware of how class time is utilized.

## Length of School Year Comparison to Other Educational Jurisdictions

The lengthening of the school year has been a contentious issue in North America. Barrett (1990) reports that between 1949-1980, increasing the length of the school year was not a popular idea. However, when Gallup made comparison with other countries, the results began to change with a clear trend by 1989 for lengthening the school year.

Barrett (1990) gives the following list, garnered from a variety of sources, of the varying number of days in a standard school year. Such data is not readily available and Barrett cautions against direct comparisons. For example, of the 243 days in the school year in Japan, 210 are prescribed by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, the balance to be determined by local school boards for items such as field trips and inservice. The Canadian and U.S. figures, however, represent the total length of the school year inclusive of instructional time, field trips, in-service. However, the list provides a general basis for comparison of the length of the school year in various jurisdictions.

| | |
|---|---|
| Japan | 243 |
| West Germany | 226-240 |
| South Korea | 220 |
| Israel | 216 |
| Luxembourg | 216 |
| Soviet Union | 211 |
| Netherlands | 200 |
| Scotland | 200 |
| Thailand | 200 |
| Hong Kong | 195 |
| England/Wales | 192 |
| Hungary | 192 |
| Swaziland | 191 |
| Finland | 190 |
| New Zealand | 190 |
| Nigeria | 190 |
| British Columbia | 185 |
| France | 185 |
| Ontario | 185 |
| Ireland | 184 |
| New Brunswick | 182 |
| Quebec | 180 |
| Spain | 180 |
| Sweden | 180 |
| United States | 180 |
| French Belgium | 174 |
| Flemish Belgium | 160 |

## Inter-province comparisons

The length of the school year, which varies from province to province, consists of the number of days schools will be open as well as the number of teaching days. The following is taken from *The School Calendar*, 1990-1991.

**Length of School Year by Province**

(1990-1991)

| PROVINCE | DAYS OPEN | TEACHING DAYS |
|---|---|---|
| Newfoundland | 190 | 185 |
| Prince Edward Island | 193 | 183 |
| Nova Scotia | 197 | 189 |
| New Brunswick (Eng.) | 195 | 182 |
| New Brunswick (Fr.) | 195 | 186 |
| Quebec | 180-200 | 180 minimum |
| Ontario | 195 | 185 |
| Manitoba | 196-200 | 185-189 |
| Saskatchewan | 197 | 189-191 |
| Alberta | 190-200 | 190 |
| British Columbia | 190 | 185 |
| NWT | 190-195 | 190 |
| Yukon | 190 | 187 |

The length of the instructional day is also prescribed as well as minutes per week or hours per year.

In Newfoundland the length of the school year for salary purposes is set out in Article 28 of the Provincial Agreement between the Newfoundland Teachers' Association and the School Boards and the Provincial Government as follows: (a) For salary purposes, the length of the school year shall be 190 teaching days comprised of 185 actual teaching days, three (3) paid holidays and two (2) non-teaching days to be scheduled by the board during the school year for administrative purposes.

Teaching days, then, has reference to teachers and not the number of days of instruction students should receive.

Hours of daily instruction are prescribed in *The Schools Act*. Section 55 reads as follows: In any school the minimum number of hours of instruction in each school day shall be

(a) for kindergarten, two and one-half hours;

(b) for Grades I to III, four hours; and

(c) for Grades IV to XII, five hours.

## Newfoundland Studies on Instructional Time

A number of studies have addressed instructional time in Newfoundland schools. Fushell (1989) found in a survey of Newfoundland high school science and mathematics teachers that an average of 47 days is spent on non-instructional activities. This represents a loss of 74% of the 120 hours allocated for this subject and takes into consideration identifiable lost time such as examinations, school closures and workshops. Other items such as management time, time lost between classes, unscheduled lost time such as preparation for graduation are not accounted for.

Mackey (1990) considered the factors contributing to a reduction of engaged learning time for a sample graduating class, of the 185 days available for instruction. He estimated that 37 days were lost for factors such as in-service, weather, absenteeism, school and classroom management, special events. Other factors, such as time on task, teaching practice, and motivation accounts for a 10-25 day loss. The total estimated days lost is 47-62 or the estimated percentage is 25%-34%. Further, Mackey suggests:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Average loss per student per year | 55 | days |
| Minimum years in school | 13 | years |
| Total days lost | 715 | days |
| Total years lost | 3.9 | years |

Hodder and Boak (1991) found that 31.4 days are lost for items such as prayer, assembles, spirit and sports days, leaving 153.6 days of 185 to teach. Of that balance, lost instructional or on-task time within classrooms was investigated and the finding was that 56.7 days are lost due to off-task activities. They concluded that the total number of days students are not engaged in academic learning is 93.1 or 49% of the school year.

Although certain lost time items are predictable, others vary from school year to school year and are rarer but nevertheless significant. These include teacher action in the form of strike or student walkout, or parental decisions to keep children out of school.

Despite the prescribed minimum hours of instruction per day and teaching days, schools are falling well short of what is considered to be necessary. Not only must the minimum hours of instruction be assured, if not on a daily at least on a weekly basis, but also *The Schools Act* should further prescribe a minimum number of instructional days for students.

### Summary of Research on Time and Learning

Karweit (1984) provides a useful summary of research on time and learning: (a) only about half the time in the school day is ordinarily used for instruction; (b) there are great differences in the amounts of time students are exposed to learning activities; (c) time allocations differ markedly among classrooms; and (d) many sources determine how time is used in schools.

Many studies show positive association between time and learning, but differences are not consistently explained by differences in the amount of instructional time. Educators should not necessarily expect more time to produce more learning because:

- other factors that co-vary with time may be the real cause of achievement;
- variation in the way time is used cannot be completely controlled;
- findings of studies conducted with the present school day and year may not apply to a longer day or year.

### Conclusions

It is clear from the evidence that far too much instructional time is lost. Given that there is a positive, thought moderate, relation between time and achievement, the following recommendations attempt to provide, based on suggestions from the literature, approaches to improving the use of instructional time. At this time, there is no recommendation made to extend the school year or school day. This would raise expectations for improving achievement but there is nothing to indicate that simply increasing the numbers of days in the school year and hours in the school day would have any affect. What is more important at present is assuring effective use of the instructional time that is already available.

The following recommendations should be implemented immediately. Throughout a five-year period, monitoring of the use of instructional time should be undertaken. Achievement measures should be compared at the end of five years while recognizing that time is only one component of instruction and achievement.

## Recommendations

1. In addition to specifying the length of the school year, a minimum number of instructional days for students should be prescribed in *The Schools Act*. Schools must assure that this number is realized.
2. The Department of Education and School Boards should provide the means for principals to be aware of how their school management can contribute to effective use of instructional time.
3. School Boards and Principals should provide the means for teachers to be aware of how their classroom management can contribute to effective use of instructional time.
4. Teachers should provide the means for students to be aware of how they can manage and increase engaged time.
5. Schools should engage in a process of identifying the needs of its students which in turn would inform applications to time to certain areas of the curriculum or blocks of time to ensure greater engagement in areas of greatest need. More direct instruction in certain areas or across the curriculum approaches are only two examples. This process should be school based and board supported.
6. The Faculty of Education should present to pre-service teachers as part of their program the research on instructional time.

## Implementation

A pilot project on the effective use of instructional time should be developed. The project should be developed through a quality assurance program. A quality assurance team would consist of representatives from the Department of Education, professional staff from the school districts involved, principals,teachers and students from the designated schools. The team would develop the program with consideration for the responsibility of each group named in the recommendations, namely, Department of Education, School Board administration and professional staff, principals, teachers and students.

## Summary and Conclusions

Increasing the use of available instructional time is a reasonable goal for education in Newfoundland and Labrador. It is an identifiable problem, one that has been documented, and one that has practical solutions.

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Chapter 13

# THE CHANGING FACE OF TEACHING

Eric Burry
Reginald Bonnell

Society is changing. This inevitable fact does not escape us. The information and knowledge increase is exponentially generating. This fact does not escape us. The meaning of schooling is changing. All three of these factors are impacting upon the educational process for children. "What knowledge is of most worth" will be a challenge for futurists and educators as we approach the new millennium.

This paper examines in detail the historical growth of education in this province, looks at the realities of teaching in Newfoundland classrooms today and examines trends and developments that could enhance and improve the teaching process for both teachers and students if adopted in the province.

It does not make any recommendations for change. It chronicles significant forces both social, economical and political influencing the educational environment in Newfoundland schools. From these events recommendations could easily be extracted but we leave such work to the authors of the Royal Commission.

Charting new courses is never easy. It takes vision and courage - vision to find new solutions and courage to suggest that these solutions should be undertaken for improvement to occur.

## Introduction

Teaching does make a difference. This is a fundamental tenet of teachers. To believe anything less would condemn a teacher to frustration, cynicism and despair. This assumption has been understood by teachers over all the years that people have existed on the earth.

Teaching is an extremely important process that allows one person to help one or more people to learn. It is practised in primitive and advanced societies. Today, there are more teachers in the world than in any other single profession. While teaching has been an important part of societies in the world, the formal training of teachers is a somewhat new phenomena. The first institutions dedicated to the formal training of teachers began in Europe during the 1800's.

As with many things in life, it is important to develop some appreciation of the historical development of teaching in this province if we are to understand fully where we are today and where we head in the future. Teaching in this province has evolved from informal and formal roots. In many small communities throughout the 19th and 20th centuries concerned individuals often assumed the informal role of teacher to help others in the community to learn how to read. During the same period, many societies and private schools arose and assumed the formal or institutional responsibility for teaching and education. It is in this more formal arena that our historical perspective begins.

## Teaching in Newfoundland - A Historic Perspective

### Societies and Education

The first known attempt at schooling in Newfoundland took place around 1723 (Rowe, 1964). As happened in other parts of Canada, the first efforts to educate in this province were initiated by religious institutions. An English body known as the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts established a school in Bonavista in either 1722 or 1723. The primary function of this school was not education but the spreading of the Gospel. This Society recognized that to obtain its primary goal it would have to teach its congregation to read and write.

Over the next 100 years this Society established schools in more than twenty additional settlements. The teachers in these schools were usually the local clergymen, unless he could convince the Society or the local inhabitants to contribute money toward the salary of a teacher. These schools experienced varying degrees of success, largely due to the inconsistent supply of individuals who were willing to serve as a missionary and a school teacher. Many of these teachers hired returned to England after short terms in Newfoundland.

Teachers in schools established by this Society had received no special training in the craft of teaching. Their education consisted of the same "classical" education that any student would have received in England then.

In the early 1800's, the town of St. John's began to take the shape of a permanent settlement. It was a settlement that contemporary accounts describe as full of "dirt and filth." Concerns about the cultural, social and economic life of the city led several citizens to form the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor in St. John's. One of their first tasks was to provide funds for the opening of two schools, one Catholic and the other Protestant. The main thrust of the school was to teach reading. Those who could read were expected to read the Scripture, study catechism and reads some works of literature. There is also some evidence to show that these schools did provide some industrial training as part of their curriculum. Over the years, however, the denominational division seems to have disappeared and these schools accepted all students, despite their denomination.

Around the same time another Society emerged in St. John's which had a role to play in education. The Benevolent Irish Society formed in 1806 to alleviate the suffering of the Irish residents of St. John's. In 1827, this Society built an "orphan asylum" for the care and education of orphans and other children of poor families. The curriculum consisted of reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, grammar, navigation and bookkeeping. While the school was open to children of all denominations, it became the main Roman Catholic school in St. John's. Because of difficulties in obtaining competent teachers, the school was placed in the hands of a religious order in 1847.

Still another Society was formed in 1823. The Newfoundland School Society's chief aim was "to communicate free instruction to the poor inhabitants of all denominations in this Colony." Teachers were supplied from the National Schools of England that were under the direct patronage of the Church of England. More often than not they were husband and wife teaching teams. The curriculum of these schools was a practical one, emphasizing reading, writing, arithmetic, sewing, knitting and net-working. This Society also experienced problems with obtaining and holding competent teachers, although the teachers who did come from England were comparatively well trained.

Teachers who taught for Newfoundland School Society's schools did receive some training in the craft of teaching. Their basic training consisted of learning how to handle large groups of children. Included in this training were drill and memory techniques and strategies for using older monitors to teach younger students. Contemporaries of these teachers were unanimous in their praise of these teachers. An additional benefit that the Society gave to education in Newfoundland was the introduction of rudimentary teacher training at its Central School in St. John's.

Despite early attempts by these Societies to provide non-denominational education in Newfoundland, they all became affiliated with sectarian teaching. This largely occurred because of the close relationship between the teachers and a specific religious purpose. As government became more and more involved in funding education during the 19th and 20th centuries, this issue became divisive. One of the first organized attempts of teacher training in Newfoundland originated with the Methodists who established a training school in St. John's.

The schools developed by these various Societies experienced varying degrees of success. There were problems with engaging and retaining competent teachers, especially in the numbers needed in Newfoundland. The condition of the poor in Newfoundland then meant that a teacher could never be certain of children's attendance at school. Children would frequently absent themselves from school to work or to follow their family in the pursuit of work.

## Private Schools

During this period, the 19th and 20th centuries, it was common practice for children of the wealthy to be sent to schools in England, the United States, or the adjoining parts of Canada to receive their basic education. The first private school in Newfoundland was established in Old Perlican around 1780. About 1800 the more affluent residents of St. John's began to express concern over the lack of a local institution to provide their children with a "classical" education. This led to the formation of the Newfoundland Grammar School that was administered by a Church of England clergyman and two assistants. This school received the children of seventy-five local families.

In 1807 the Newfoundland Seminary was established in St. John's. Its primary purpose was to teach "the prerequisites of a classical and the essentials of an English education." The school only survived for three years.

Several other private schools existed in St. John's at this time. Notable among them were schools developed by either Mr. L. Chancey, Mrs. McCawley or a Mr. Greene. These private schools usually excluded the poor through their fee structure and delivered a basic curriculum consisting of reading, writing, arithmetic and grammar. Some schools would add courses in other areas such as navigation, morals and needlework. Other private schools that developed at this time expanded on this basic curriculum and included such subjects as science and fine arts.

Several private schools also began in some larger communities around the island. Harbour Grace and Carbonear both had private schools established for the education of young ladies. As government financing of education and the religious orders involvement increased, the number of private schools decreased. By the middle of the century, private schools had, for the most part, disappeared.

## Roman Catholic Orders

During the 1800's the Roman Catholic Bishop of the time, Bishop Fleming, particularly disliked that most of the schools established for the education of the poor were co-educational. In 1833 he was successful in getting a group of Presentation nuns to emigrate from Ireland to Newfoundland. The Presentation Sisters soon established schools for girls that by 1844 had more than 1000 children in daily attendance.

In 1842 Bishop Fleming was again successful in bringing over a second order of Irish nuns. Sisters of the Order of Mercy immediately became involved with the education of Roman Catholic children.

Five years later, monks from the Order of St. Francis were brought over to teach boys in the Orphan Asylum schools. These monks only remained for a short time and were replaced in 1876 by the Irish Christian Brothers. Over a period the Christian Brothers assumed responsibility over other schools for boys.

These Roman Catholic orders were brought to Newfoundland to fill the need for competent teachers and to provide religious instruction for Catholic children. Whatever the reason they have continued to make a contribution to the education of Newfoundland children up to modern times.

## Government Funding for Education

In 1836 the first Education Act was passed in Newfoundland. The Act set aside its paltry funds to help organizations in carrying on their educational work and set aside funds to encourage the development of school boards that would maintain and establish schools. It was not the intention of this Act to provide enough funds for the total maintenance of an educational system. The cost of building schools and teacher salaries were not considered to be a governmental responsibility.

It was the expectation at this time that pupils would pay fees that would go toward the cost of teachers' salaries. An amendment to the Education Act was passed in 1838 that set aside a small sum of money for the purchase of a few textbooks. The Education Act of 1843 more than doubled the Education budget but still kept it as a very modest sum. It also increased the number of educational districts and divided the money between Protestants and Roman Catholics. All pupils attending school were still expected to pay fees toward the cost of teacher salaries.

Between 1843 and 1853 several revisions were made to the Education Act that added a few more dollars to the budget and expanded the number of school boards. A differential student fee structure was also put in place that charged higher fees to students as they advanced through the educational system. The 1858 Act introduced for the first time a small sum of money to be used exclusively for the training of teachers.

Another significant change occurred for teachers in the 1876 Act when different certificate levels were provided based on the level of training that each teacher had received. These levels were classified as first, second or third grades, with first being the highest, although there was no monetary distinction between the grades. The following year the new Act did introduce a monetary differential between grades - $20, $12, and $6 respectively. This is the first indication that the government was now assuming some direct responsibility for the salary of teachers. In order for a teacher to obtain a grade, the teacher had to be sixteen years of age, in good health, and of "exceptional moral character."

The 1876 Act was a direct attempt to set standards in the quality of teaching. It set aside the sum of $116 for the board, lodging and training of male teachers and $80 for the same purposes for females. These amounts were to be awarded to teachers from all the educational districts annually. Participants in this program were to be recommended by their district and were to be examined by a board of examiners. For the first time the duties of a teacher were specified in this Act.

To raise the quality of teaching, this Act introduced denominational superintendents of education and further provisions for inspection. It also outlined a program of study to be undertaken by teachers in training that included the study of reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography and history.

The 1892 Act made considerable improvement in supplementing teacher salaries according to grade. The annual supplementary salaries for the three grade levels were raised to $64, $48, and $32 respectively. In addition, appropriations were made for the support of a teachers' pension plan and for three scholarships for teachers.

The government's role in funding education became much stronger in 1916 with the passage of the Education Act for that year. It provided for a somewhat massive infusion of funds for education. Part of the money was to be spent on the establishment of high schools, to pay teachers in sparsely populated localities and for the training of teachers. The differential fees that students had to pay toward teacher salaries was adjusted and varied from a low of $1 for grade 1 to $4 for above grade 6. This Act also specified that nine-tenths of all grants to boards had to be spent on teacher salaries. In addition the Act created four teaching grades - Associate, First, Second and Third. To qualify for Third grade a teacher had to have the equivalent of a Grade 8 education. To qualify for an Associate Grade a teacher had to have a high school education and three years teaching experience.

In 1920 the amendment Act created the Department of Education and established an advisory board that dealt with the qualifications of teachers. Teachers were given three positions on that board. Teacher salaries were now to be paid based on teaching grade and experience. Another major advance in this Act was the provision of a pension for all teachers at their retirement. The creation of a Normal school by this Act now provided a facility where teacher training was to take place. Monies were provided for the training of teachers. The Normal school trained approximately 100 teachers a semester, using a two-semester year. It retained this function until the 1930's when a teacher-training department was added to Memorial University.

Most teachers in Newfoundland still could not afford the cost of attending a full year course at either the Norma school or at Memorial College. To meet a need, Memorial established summer schools for teachers. At these summer schools teachers were exposed to both professional and academic courses. Hundreds of Newfoundland teachers began their teaching careers via this avenue. Many later went on to pursue full degree programs in education as well as other academic areas.

In 1943 the government passed a School Attendance Act that made attendance compulsory for all children between the ages of seven and fourteen and made education free for these students. State involvement in education continued to grow until Confederation when government assumed almost total control for it.

During the 1960's enrolment in the Faculty of Education ballooned. The need for additional teachers in the province had grow significantly. During this period Memorial University produced the mainstay of this province's teaching force of today. For the first time large numbers of teachers were entering the teaching population with at least one university degree.

### Societal Changes and its Impact upon Students and Teachers

> "Because of technological awareness life will be characterized by rapid change, knowledge will become obsolete at a more rapid rate. School children will more likely come from single-parent homes or from homes in which both parents work."

It is now commonplace to hear educators speak of change. In fact, most of them regard change as the only constant there is in society and we believe that change both revolutionary and evolutionary carries with it both good and bad. For the classroom teacher, however, societal change brings with it challenges and stresses, arguments and debates as the conflicting values of an educational system past, interface with the expectations of a modern educational society. The educational system, it is fair to say, is under attack. It is under attack from many sectors, not the least of which is the business sector which is presently making a bid to have a greater impact and consequently set directions for education in a Canadian context. The economic challenges are global in context. Economists suggest that the economic challenges for Canada will be similar to the economic challenges facing the industrialized world. Canadians will need to develop a value system that makes them more competitive in the workplace, a value system that will see the products of industries in Canada equal to the standard that is today expected by its citizens, equal to the standard that other nations are able to present to its consumers. At the moment it would appear that the work ethic is somewhat weakened perhaps by the availability of social programs to Canadians and we have lost the competitive edge. However, we have a real dilemma facing Canadian education and that is far too many students are dropping out of school prior to completion of even a minimum program. It is now reported that 100,000 young Canadians leave high school before they graduate. If the current dropout rate of 30 percent continues, by the year 2000 as many as one million under-educated, untrained youths will come into the labour markets. The challenge for the educational system will be to develop highly motivated and competitive students that will be able to compete with their counterparts in other industrialized nations. As the Global Village continues to shrink the workplace will become more competitive, highly computerized, where information transfer and information absorbtion will be the measure of success. Students who have the capabilities to both transfer and absorb, will in all likelihood, be successful in that future society.

These arguments pursued by economists and driven predominantly by the excellent performance of the economies of Japan and West Germany is likely to put increasing pressure on the educational system of our province and, indeed, this transference is like to be felt in the classrooms where the classroom teacher has to make sense out of it all.

Society, indeed, within the last decade has produced some startling influences in education. Parents are no longer willing to sit by as they once did and let the teacher make decisions affecting the lives of their child in total. Parents want a greater say and are determined to have a greater say. Lobby groups are becoming more effective than ever before in determining the curriculum for schools. It can be argued that the bilingual policies of Canada have been carried through by interested parents - parents who view bilingualism as a prerequisite for greater employment opportunities. Parents want a greater say in the curriculum for handicapped children, they want their hard to manage child no matter the disability to be integrated within the regular classroom irregardless of the added pressure that it brings upon the classroom teacher and other classmates

However, many of our classroom teachers cannot integrate the hard to serve children. That is not to say that they do not try and give it their best effort but generally speaking integration of hard to serve children, whether they be physically, mentally or emotionally disabled must be accompanied by vast resources and retraining. Presently, we see no real commitment on the part of government to retrain teachers in this area or to supply school board with the added resources that would see integration achieve the goals for which it was intended. The least restrictive environment for the child to learn in has become an unbelievable stressful environment in which the teacher must practise.

*We live in the most interdependent, co-operative society the world has ever known* (Combs, 1991) and teachers are now aware of the increasing interdependence of all nations in the world. Political, economical and social interdependence of the earth's people has made classroom teachers more cognizant of the need to have an educational system that is not so much content driven but to contain processes of education that can be transferable to lifelong living and improvement. In this regard, curriculum expansion and the pace of change has further increased the complexities of the classroom and has added an extra level of stress to teaching. The pace of curriculum change will be examined in greater detail elsewhere in this paper.

Educators are now promoting what is known as "active learning". That is, the children themselves are engaged more fully in the process of learning. Students are determining their own programs, with more autonomy and power of choice being given to parents and students. Teachers are well aware of the desirable effects of experiential education but without the necessary skills and knowledge on the part of teachers, changing a classroom from a lecture oriented to an experiential oriented classroom is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve. The classroom teacher realizes that the new instructional strategies are necessary but without the tools and without the training it becomes another burden of conscience. As the new paradigm of learning shifts the responsibility for learning to the learner, from the narrowly confined classroom walls to the world at large, higher order cognitive skills becomes increasingly important. The ability to think critically, to undercover bias and propaganda, to reason and question, to remain intellectually flexible are the cornerstones of the new educational paradigms of the future. Yet, there is a paradox here. Fullan and Hargraves (1991) express this paradox succinctly when they say:

> *As if adding insult to injury, fragmented solutions, faddism and other bandwagon shifts, massive multi-faceted, unwieldly reform, all drive the teacher downward. The solution becomes the problem. Innovations are not making the teacher's job more manageable. They are making it worse. Overload of expectations and fragmented solutions remain the number one problem.*

However, flippantly these new paradigms are being thrown out by futuristic looking educators the classroom teacher in Newfoundland is faced with a critical shortage of materials, a critical shortage of expertise, a critical shortage of direction and support, is forced to think reflectively of all these new measures but is most likely unable to see in the near future the coming to fruition of these ideas in his or her classroom. All of these new trends, methodologies and innovations make greater demand on teacher time. Teachers are constantly complaining of an overcrowded curriculum, of a curriculum that is not integrated but a curriculum that is served up piece meal to students and of a curriculum that for the most part remains segregated and isolated in content. Fullan, (1991) writes:

> *Because of the knowledge explosion, and because of what we expect teachers to cover in the curriculum, the values and style of the one classroom - one teacher tradition are no longer*

> *relevant for the modern elementary school teacher. Even if they ever did, elementary teachers can no longer reasonably be expected to cover old areas of the curriculum by themselves. To have expertise in Math and in Language, in Science and in Music, in Art and in Computers and in Drug and Sex Education for example, is too much to expect of even the most skilled and flexible teacher.*

The classroom teacher has to assimilate, has to integrate, has to synthesize and has to somehow find time in the curriculum to teach some of the basic requirements of schooling such as Math, Science, Reading, etc. Is it any wonder in the Newfoundland classroom of today the classroom teacher feels put upon and that the feeling of isolation and privation continues to restrict the reform of schools and all society for which education is supposed to achieve.

### The Mix of Children in Newfoundland Classrooms of Today

Much has been written by educators on the maladjusted child in the classroom and in society at large. The recently released National Commission on Children (1991) entitled, *Beyond Rhetoric - A New American Agenda for Children and Families* paints a dismal picture of the circumstance surrounding many children in the United States when it states:

> *.... among all races and income groups, and in communities nationwide, many children are in jeopardy. They grow up in families whose lives are in turmoil. Their parents are too stressed and too drained to provide the nurturing, structure, and security that protect children and prepare them for adulthood. Some of these children are unloved and ill tended. Others are unsafe at home and in their neighbourhoods. Many are poor, and some are homeless and hungry .... The harshness of these children's lives and their tenuous hold on tomorrow cannot be countenanced by a wealthy nation, a caring people, or a prudent society. America's future depends on these children, too.*

We cannot suggest that the harshness of the circumstances surrounding the children for which this report was written is typical of circumstances surrounding a large number of children living in this province. But what we can document is that for some children circumstances in the home are often opposed to the nurturing and protective environment of the school. The typical classroom in the Newfoundland setting will have children ill-fed, ill-dressed, ill-nurtured, socially and emotionally disadvantaged and, in many cases, many children will nurse profound psychological problems for which professional care is necessary but not always available. For Newfoundland, research indicates that the number of students living in poverty is approximately 27 percent and it is estimated that *"more than one million Canadian children live in poverty"* (Robertson - 1991). And Goble speaking to a group of teachers in New Brunswick recently (Sept.,1991) said that *"Poverty is a major barrier to achieving an education. The disparity of opportunity created by different backgrounds puts a heavy burden on the school system to try to deal effectively with children faced with poverty, violence and lack of parental support"*. The impoverished student is in every classroom. Witness the number of schools in the St. John's area alone that supplies a free hot noon-day meal to students or the number of schools throughout the province that keeps a well supplied larder for the students who arrived to school hungry. It is commonplace for teachers to have in their classroom hungry children who may have wandered to school in the hope of finding a caring adult. It is not an exaggeration to say that this problem is increasing at an alarming rate.

The unsupervised and uncared for child is a product of a larger societal phenomenon - namely - the rapid disappearance of the nuclear and extended family. Robertson (1991), writes, *"That in 196l, 65 percent of Canadian families conformed to the image of dad-at-work and mom-at-home model. Today that figure is l6 percent. More than 60 percent of women with children work outside the home. The number of two-parent families which would sink below the poverty line would increase by a whopping*

*78% if only one adult was employed."*

In this province, with its fragile economy the likelihood of children being considerably better off than their mainland counterparts is hard to imagine. Linked closely with the disappearance of the nuclear and extended family is the ever-increasing divorce rate in this country. It is estimated, *"that one in two marriages will end in divorce, and more than half of all children born today will spend at least part of their childhood in one-parent homes"* so reports the Children's Defense Fund, 1991, when declaring family circumstances affecting children in the United States. For Canada the statistics are essentially comparable. As a consequence the average Newfoundland classroom will have a considerable number of its children receiving parenting from one person. The question as to how significant this really is on the caring and support for children is difficult to determine but we can be certain that the positive results are likely to be minimal.

Again quoting from an American study, *"the mother's income can be expected to drop 30 percent after a divorce"*, which means that in terms of financial care and support children can be expected to receive less. (Waldon, 1991, p.16). However important financial resources are to the nourishing and caring of children what is even more important is the emotional deprivation experienced when one parent has to shoulder the burden for child caring alone. The child has only one parent to talk to, to interact with and, in many cases, to love and it is this loss that plays so heavily on the child's spirit. It is estimated that *"as many as 40 percent of noncustodial parents never see their children"* (Waldon, 1991). Consequently, the classroom teacher in many instances, provides the only emotional support on a continuing basis that childhood may ever know.

In addition to children experiencing poverty and divorce, the classroom will most likely contain children who have experienced a great deal of violence in the home. The battered wife is another product of a society drifting from moral principles and incidences are increasing daily.

Robertson, (1991) reports, *"in 1988 - fifty-five thousand children arrived with their mothers at shelters for women. An equal number was turned away"*. These children turn up in classrooms the following day. She goes on to report that, *"children who witness violence may exhibit characteristics in the classroom similar to children who are physically or sexually abused, withdrawn, lack of attention, anger, inappropriate and violent behaviour"*. In many cases exhibiting the very behaviour to which they were exposed.

And a CTF recent National Study of Adolescent Girls, entitled *A Capella* reported that, *"the number of young girls who spoke spontaneously about their experiences with violence and abuse - including dating violence, exceeded all expectations. One in three Canadian girls has been or will be sexually abused before adulthood."*

These alarming and depressing statistics are provided only to give an indication of the serious problems facing students that teachers work with on a daily basis. The physically and mentally disabled, the impoverished, the emotionally abused, the drug abused, the unhappy, the lonely, the non-motivated, the hungry are present in ever increasing numbers in our schools. Is it any wonder that classroom teachers in our province are asking some very profound questions concerning their profession? Is it any wonder that today's classroom teacher is finding the stress and strain of teaching to be almost unbearable? The classrooms of two decades ago, for which most of our teachers were trained and for which many of them still eagerly seek, have taken on some unwholesome characteristics.

To conclude this section we will give the last word to a teacher involved in an Ontario Study that looked at ways in which teaching has changed over the years:

> *Teaching is changing so much. There's so much more social worker involved in your job now than there ever was before. So many problems, behavioral and social problems, that are sitting in your classroom that have to be dealt with before you can ever attempt to start teaching. I don't think a lot of people realize that.... it's really a changing job.... and I don't think a lot of*

> *people who've never been in a school and seen a school run know exactly what a person puts up with in a day.*

**Teachers and the Profession of Teaching**

Teachers are professionals. To be a professional means to adhere to and maintain standards, to be continually seeking new knowledge about teaching and learning, to have access to resources for teaching and to be consulted from time to time on the profession of teaching and to work in a supportive environment that enhances self growth and enriches the personal life of the teacher.

However, we believe that it is accurate to say that we are experiencing a troubled profession and many teachers are unable to cope with the increasing demands and expectations of teaching from different quarters. Teachers frequently talk among themselves of early retirements, the need for stress management programs and for greater balance in their professional and private lives.

The Newfoundland Teachers' Association reacting from pressure from teachers at its Annual General Meeting has developed a Stress Management Program that is available upon request to teachers in the field. Although just in its infancy, this program is being called for on an almost daily basis. From all sections of the province the cry from teachers is for greater help both for their personal wellbeing and for greater help with their classroom programs.

If the Employee Assistance Program is a barometer of the need for helping teachers than surely we are a hurting profession indeed.

Why do we have so many hurting teachers? The question is a difficult one but it begs an answer. There are many reasons put forward by researchers and any one or all of them may have some significance.

Education is a relatively low-status profession

This was not always the case in Newfoundland society. Teachers heretofore were highly respected and their opinions and leadership skills eagerly sought. They were **"pillars"** of the community in which they taught carrying through activities in the civic, secular and clerical affairs of the community.

In many cases they **"empowered"** themselves, and their influence was pervasive. Not so today. The teacher is not always a resident of the community in which he or she teaches; very little contact is made with community leaders and there is not the expectation by citizens that the teacher is anything but a teacher. The teacher neither commands respect through title, salary or position but must do so through teaching ability demonstrated in the classroom.

Changing Mores and Value System

The home, as discussed elsewhere in this paper, has changed. Without the home supporting the school the child is likely to receive mixed messages about the importance of schooling. Social programs that financially secures and builds on fragile economies reduces the importance of the message that education is important for prospective employment. The work ethic becomes questioned, children pattern their thinking and, more seriously, their expectations on conversations overheard at home and reinforced on a daily basis. Parental expectations about schooling and their viewpoints on the linkage between education and the world of work is likely to be significant in whether children stay in school or dropout. Although stay-in-school initiatives have grown profusely within the last two years their real value has yet to be determined. The classroom teacher is under considerable pressure to find ways and means to keep all children in school and learning to full capacity. Apart from the desirability of having all children learn to their full potential the teacher is also pressured to make sure that school enrolments don't slip by children leaving before graduation requirements are reached. Education programs within school districts and within schools, school board budgets, and teacher assignments are all affected by children staying in school. Is it any wonder that a school system financed and staffed on the numbers of children attending, irregardless of programming required for children in today's society, would not be a stressful environment in which to work?

## Teacher Accountability

The more diverse teaching becomes, the greater the overload of subjects, the greater the expectations of schooling the greater the accountability factor. The greater the accountability factor the greater the stress.

The accountability factor reaches far beyond the rights of students to become educated and the commitment that teachers must have to their disciplines and their practise of teaching. It now reaches into every aspect of teaching and living in daily contact with children. Safety on the school ground requires accountability, safety in the school corridors requires accountability, detecting child abuse both emotional and physical requires accountability, safety on the school bus requires accountability and the list is broadening every passing day. These are all areas reflecting accountability that are somewhat tangential to the process of teaching. In addition teachers are accountable to the administrators, to the parents, to the subject areas they teach, to the school boards, to the Department of Education and most recently to Federal agencies funding educational projects such as; stay in school initiatives, co-op learning projects, bilingual education and other lists that are increasing daily. When one considers the implications for failing to be accountable, both legal and educational, it is not difficult to see why teachers are seeking programs for burnout and stress.

## The Isolation Problem

Teaching is often referred to as a "lonely" profession. The professional isolation of teachers limits access to new ideas and better solutions, drives stress inward to fester and accumulate, fails to recognize and praise success and permits incompetence to exist and persist to the detriment of students, colleagues and the teachers themselves. Isolation allows, even if it does not always produce conservation and resistance to innovations in teaching (Lortie, 1975).

Because of the isolated environment change is difficult to attain. The classroom in its design acts as a buffer and a retreat that reinforces privation. Because the possibility exists that teachers can continue their daily tasks without interacting with colleagues, problems that teachers harbour both professional and personal may never be discussed and solutions found. The very damaging phrase that we often hear is that **"teachers teach as they were taught"**, is strengthened by the privatism practiced in schools. However, the leadership style that reinforces collegiality and collaboration as a means to involving teachers in the decision making process of schools may hopefully, remove the feeling of isolation that teachers feel from day to day. As teachers face up to rising and widening expectations in their work and to the increasing overload of innovations and reforms it is important that they work and plan more with their colleagues, sharing and developing their expertise together, instead of trying to cope with the demand alone. With this new concept for the teacher's role, leadership and consultancy becomes part of the job for all teachers, not just a privilege allocated to and exercised by the few. (Fullan and Hargreave, 1991)

## Integration and the Classroom Teacher

The inclusion of the special needs child into daily activities and daily routines of the school and classroom has caused considerably stress for the classroom teacher. It was mentioned earlier in this paper that the average classroom teacher is ill equipped to deal with this phenomenon that has grown like topsey over the last decade or so. The Department of Education of Newfoundland like other provincial Department's of Education and Ministries of Education, responded to the Charter of Rights & Freedoms, Sub-Section 15(1)(2), which basically mandated that handicapped children were to be given the same rights and responsibilities as that afforded other children in an enlightened society; namely the right to an education in the least restrictive environment possible by placing special needs children in regular classrooms. Most Department's and Ministries, as did our own Department of Education, developed precise and structured recommendations as to how different categories of special needs children were to be accommodated. Rules and regulations governing the placement of children were to help school boards and eventually school administrators with this difficult problem through policy handbooks. However, it has proven much more easier to write policies than to have them carried through in particular classrooms. A handicapped child in policy is just that, but a handicapped child in the classroom is a person with extra-ordinary needs, extra-ordinary demands, which cannot always be met satisfactorily even under the best of conditions.

It is now recognized in Canada that the development of policies with specific rules and regulations to insure implementation of special programming for special children has only achieved marginal success. This marginal success has come at a great expense to the average classroom teacher upon whose shoulders has fallen the burden of making integration work. The burden of making it work has driven some teachers from the classroom. Many are unable to cope with the providing of individualized programming for the special needs child and they find it difficult to meet the demands of numerous stakeholders involved in the process of developing such a program, such as the social work, the district school psychologists, the in-school guidance counsellor, the school principal, vice-principal, the special needs teacher, the classroom teacher and sometimes the student. The unlimited after school meetings to develop programs, the extra-ordinary teaching devices required for teaching and evaluation purposes, and the demands of thirty or so average children with average student needs in a regular classroom are often too taxing for many teachers. Unable to cope with another adult in the classroom who may hold different educational philosophies giving rise to additional conflict, the classroom teacher must wonder when someone, somewhere, will review integration from the teachers' point of view.

I believe that what's preventing someone, somewhere from doing just that is the fact of denouncing an educational trend that morally and pedogically we know to be "right & proper" for the special needs child. How are we to face this educational dilemma? The classroom teacher cannot be expected to deal with the burden of making integration successful in schools. It is too heavy a burden and one in which policy makers have no right to impose unless concomitant resources both financial and personnel are readily provided. Larry Greenspan - a well known Ontario Lawyer who is actively involved in promoting the rights of the disabled, in June of 1986 reported to a group of teachers attending a conference in Ottawa that it is his belief that society has found a cheap way to fund the disabled. Give the problem to the schools and other institutions can close their doors. This is exactly what has happened! However, this solution would not have had such drastic effects had the resources already allocated been transferred along with the disabled child. School boards already underfunded, were now forced to make buildings accessible which strained capital budgets to the limit. In many instances, making schools accessible both from without and within destroyed any chance that monies could be allocated for retraining of teachers and providing educational resources. Schools were by and large left to their own devices as to how integration was to work. Other than policy inservice from the Department of Education, principals were provided little inservice on the ways and means to successfully provide for the special child and the classroom teacher was hardly involved in the process at all. As a consequence the average classroom teacher feels that this additional burden, a burden on physical stamina, a burden on mental stamina has, as referred to earlier, become a burden of conscience and this is the most debilitating of all. Drained of energy, refused resources and training, asked to adopt to and accept change, the classroom teacher has become resentful, confused and demoralized and educators are not entirely convinced that the enlightened legislation pertaining to the disabled in society has reaped the rewards for which integration was intended. We do, however, know one thing, the average classroom teacher has been given an additional burden that may not be possible to carry under the present circumstances. This burden is made all the more impossible to shoulder when one considers the vast array of new skills required to successfully integrate the disabled child. With the presence of one additional disabled child the teacher must know the disability from a medical viewpoint, must know how the disability affects the learning process, must know the emotional and social restraints of that particular disability and must be able to modify the teaching circumstances to accommodate the child.

The majority of our teachers, trained in the late sixties and early seventies have had no training in behaviour modification. Very often the special services teacher that accompanies the child to the classroom has some understanding of the behaviour modification process and knows how to shape behaviour to desired ends. However, instead of being helpful to the classroom teacher, the additional adult comes with a new set of skills, insights, and philosophies that are in all likelihood incongruent with that of the classroom teacher. Lacking congruence of philosophies and educational objectives for the child, it is not difficult to understand why the classroom teacher very often expresses the opinion that the special services teacher is often of little help when it comes to integrating and managing the child in the classroom. Again teachers who have spent a significant number of years working in a private world, is unlikely to welcome another professional into their classroom openly. Changing and shaping behaviour are not the only desired goals of integration. In addition, modification of curriculum must go hand in hand with modification of behaviour. The curriculum must constantly be adopted to the intellectual capacities of the disabled. The majority of teachers are not curriculum developers or curriculum modifiers. They are comfortable for the most part with purveying content already established. Lacking curriculum development skills in training they must now work with special services teachers and curriculum committees to modify the provincial curriculum to suit the needs of the disabled. This they find to be time consuming and frustrating. Not perceiving themselves to be hired to develop and modify curriculum they question the system even further for putting them into such a position. The teachers' personal life becomes secondary to school life and resentment and cynicism become obvious outcomes. More and more teachers are questioning why it has to be this way. Teachers lose the balance between an exciting career and an exciting personal life and stress and burnout become all to familiar a theme in educational circles. Overtired, overworked and overcommitted, the average classroom teacher at the end of the day has very little time to reflect on the meaning of teaching. Yet as Fullan argues, reflection on teaching activities and teaching skills is drastically needed if improvement is to flow through the educational system. Fullan, (1991) states: *"in the rush of events, and in the face of overload, there never seems to be time to reflect, to take stock, to check out what we are really doing and why. Resources precludes time to reflect. Lack of reflection obscures ways to relieve the pressures. The cycle is a vicious one."*

## Teacher Stress & Related Illnesses

The statistics on burnout and stress related diseases affecting teachers in this province are alarming. The annual report of the Employee Assistance Program for teachers reviewed the performance of the program from April 1, 1989 to March 31, 1991 and found that during the past two years, job and personal stress and "burnout (22-25%) has been the most frequently identified problem affecting teachers. This is closely followed by emotional and mental health issues and problems (19-23%). During this past year, there was an increase in stress, burnout and marital relationship issues with a slight decrease in emotional and mental health issues. When the program was first initiated in April of 1989 only eleven cases of teachers needing assistance were given over to the EAP Coordinator from the NTA files. By the end of the first year the eleven cases had grown to eighty-eight. By the end of the second year, the total number of referrals (194) had more than doubled and 129 of these were new cases. In total 264 teachers and family members received help through the EAP during the second year of operation. (Burford - Employee Assistance Program for Teachers. Annual Report; April 1, 1989 - March 31, 1991).

The trend for increased help from the program increases monthly and if the present trend persists we will see a doubling effect again this year. The statistics are troubling. But statistics do not tell the full story of the disruptions in personal and family life when a parent has to seek help from a program such as that offered by the Government and the NTA. The majority of the cases seeking help are not beginning or near beginning teachers. The majority have acquired between 11 to 20 years of service and on average have been in the teaching profession for fifteen years. The question as to why more teachers are accessing the program with each passing day begs an answer. Some insights into why teaching is such a stressful occupation have already been identified and will not be reiterated here. However, one additional cause of teacher burnout and teacher stress that have not been addressed to any significant degree is the question of discipline in today's classrooms and the impact that perceived lack of discipline is having on the total educational process.

## Discipline - The Number One Problem

Classroom discipline is a subject that has permeated all the major educational reports of the Western nations (and I dare say the eastern nations as well) for the last decade. From the *Nation at Risk* report that triggered reform in American schools, to Phi Delta's Kappan annual performance rating to Canada's provincial education reviews and recommendations all have addressed the problem of classroom discipline or more specifically classrooms' lack of discipline and its concomitant result which is lack of educational performance in today's schools. Educational story after another documents this increased pre-occupation with school discipline. A recent study of Canadian and United States teachers identified disruptive students as the most stressful event for 62% of teachers surveyed (Kuzman and Schnoll, 1987). Many of these same teachers felt that their teaching responsibilities were being supplanted by social work, health care work and individual counselling. The majority wanted a return to focused teaching. As well, adding to the classroom discipline pre-occupation is the ambivalence surrounding the legal authority and legislation relating to school discipline. The doctrine of "in local parentis" gives authority to school officials to administer physical punishment to students and is upheld by Canadian Courts as long as the "physical force" is "reasonable under the circumstances". However, it is difficult to determine legally the meaning of "reasonableness". Section 43 of the criminal code does provide a defence to a charge of assault but does not include the right to administer corporal punishment. (Pritchard, 1988). As a result of the legal implications emanating from the courts, the classroom teacher now feels that his/her hands are tied with respect to disciplining students in today's classroom. Citing the child as being very knowledgeable about his/her rights (which in itself is highly commendable) the teacher is very likely to desist from disciplinary action when the outcome is so uncertain. Sensing no action on the part of the teacher the student pushes acceptable behaviour limits even further until the demeanour of the classroom becomes one of confusion and uncertainty, if not chaos.

Part of the problem and the solution lies with the lack of retraining for the teacher. In many instances the teacher has not kept pace with the changing child and his expectation of teachers and schooling. An elementary principal recently reported that he had observed teachers trying to maintain order by placing disruptive students in a corner of the room or by making them stand for long periods with books held in their hands, very remimistent of discipline techniques used in the fifties and sixties when teacher authority was pervasive and unquestionable. This particular teacher who happened to be a young teacher, had reverted to what he knew about classroom management from his own schooling, forgetting that twenty years or so had elapsed and that changing society had likewise produced a changed child.

Recently, the Nova Scotia's Teachers' Union conducted a study on **"Discipline in Schools"**. The study proposed seven questions that were given to focused groups throughout the province. The report of the findings are significant. In particular question #3 of that study which asked, "Why do you think we are having discipline problems in schools today? showed that responses from teachers and students were not dissimilar in content. Students suggested that "teachers don't command respect and that too much discipline causes rebellion". In addition, "teachers are boring" and they provide "different messages" about the importance of schooling. The students recognized that "family values are missing", but indicated that some teachers were too lenient" indicating a desire for more structure and control. The teachers replies indicated that "students are frustrated and bored" and do not take "responsibility for actions". They indicated as well that "home upheavals lead to poor behaviour in schools" and, "a general lack of respect and breakdown in society stems a lack of parental support for teachers". I suspect that if such a study were undertaken in this province the findings would be similar. We have a huge educational problem that one principal suggests takes up to 60% of teaching time.

The Newfoundland Teachers' Association Professional Development Division is constantly asked to conduct workshops on Classroom Management. Teachers are seeking newer ways to deal with classroom discipline problems and to date six schools have requested full-day workshops on Classroom Management which in essence turns out to be dealing with classroom discipline. A number of schools are requesting half-day workshops and the topic is always a popular one with professional development day activity and Special Interest Council inservice programs. It is the number one concern of teachers throughout the province but unfortunately help is not always available. Young teachers because of their scanty knowledge of classroom management techniques are ever fearful of losing control in their classroom and they eagerly seek workshops on classroom management and classroom management tips from senior teachers on staff. We owe it to our teachers to find solutions to this major problem. Teaching must be more than survival from Monday to Friday and if we are to reduce the number of stress related illnesses within the teaching force the quality of work life which includes the right to teach without fear and intimidation must be addressed.

### Teacher Involvement in Extra-Curricular Activities

Teaching is a very complex occupation. In addition to the myriad of interrelated activities that continue throughout the teachers' day there are additional demands made on teachers time as the extra-curricular program of the school becomes the responsibility of teachers. Despite the voluntary nature of this program as spelled out in the Teachers' Collective Agreement (Article 27:02) it is very rare to find teachers not acceding to the wishes of the principal for involvement in extra-curricular activities. Teachers are by their very nature willing to be involved in all sorts of activities for the benefit of their students. It is not uncommon to find teachers working with students after school on such programs as gymnastics, sports activities, cheerleading activities, year-book activities, student council activities, newspaper activities, fund raising activities, reading activities, math activities and the list is endless. These school related activities are all provided for on teachers personal time and very often at the expense of the teacher's family and sometimes at the expense of teacher's health. Of course, it can be argued that school is and ought to be much more than the five hours instructional time provided by the teachers. However, the question becomes how much more? How much time is reasonable for teachers to spend after the instructional day is over? Should they not be spending some time reflecting on the teaching practices of the day just completed and should they not have time to enjoy their personal interests and just be a person. Fullan & Hargreaves (1991), reflect on the issue of over commitment of teachers and suggest that principals and school board officials in particular should be aware of the vast array of interests that teachers have outside of the school. They suggest that teaching is very important but there is more to life than school. Life interests and responsibilities beyond teaching must also be recognized. In our enthusiasm to involve staff more and more in the life of the school and to commit them (teachers) to change within it we must not forget the other legitimate calls on their time and commitments, which in the long run may well make them better people and teachers for it. (Fullan, Hargreaves, 1991).

Briefly mentioned earlier but not expounded on is the issue of fund raising for schools. Teachers, because of their nature or because of some philanthophic belief they have about the value of children, and I believe it to be the latter, refuse to have children do without. Schools cannot provide for its clientele and so teachers and children fund raise for the necessities of schooling. They fund raise for school copiers, for school computers, for gym equipment, for science aids, for art aids and the list is endless. They do so because they believe they can make a difference and by providing more materials (materials and equipment that ought to be the responsibility of school boards to provide) they hope to redress the many disadvantages facing a disadvantaged population. It is estimated the fund raising by teachers and students adds between five and eight million dollars to the educational budget every year. It has now become institutionalized and an expected part of what teaching is all about. But is it? It may be outside of the scope of this paper but it is a part of what teachers do and the problem needs to be addressed. The message that fund raising for education sends are significant and speaks volumes about the importance of education. It says that education is not significant enough to be entirely funded by government, it says that teachers professional time is worthy to be spent on fund raising, it says that children should be accountable for the quality of education they receive, it says that childhood time should be given over to the perplexing issues of adulthood and I believe that issue to be the most serious of all. Children don't want to be selling chocolate bars, and light bulbs and magazines and a host of other items for the improvement of the educational system. We as adults and as a caring society owe children that much, and it is wrong to assume otherwise. You ask why teachers are stressed! They are stressed because they are asked to do too much! The extra-curricular activities they do are done for the most part because "teaching is a moral craft, it has a purpose for those who do it". Teachers find joy and purpose in working with children after school but there must be a balance and when the burden becomes too great teachers are likely to forget the important role of being there for the child.

## Teaching and Change

As changes unfold in our society, the expectations and demands upon our institutions increase. Evidence of changing expectations are easily observed throughout society. People now expect greater health care as their right of citizenship and, as a consequence, place demands for better and more comprehensive services. Governmental structures are expected to provide increased protection and services to more and more citizens. Business is expected to be more responsive to consumer whims and tastes while, at the same time, providing improved service to clients.

Schools also suffer from the same changing expectations. More and more of the services, which in the past were the responsibilities of other agencies, are now transferred to schools. Western society has come to view the school as the most expedient institution to formalize the adoption of social policies. The process of integrating the physically and mentally disadvantaged person into the mainstream of society was directed to the schools for implementation. The development of religious instruction/family life programs have emerged as responsibilities of the school. The implementation of the government's bilingual policy has been passed onto schools for action. Cultural tolerance and understanding are expected to be concepts that are developed among students as they progress through school. These and other such social policies have expanded the responsibilities that today's schools (and their teachers) must assume. Laudable as all these policies are, they have caused additional stresses and strains in the school system.

Evidence already exists that schools will, in the future, assume increasing responsibility for the implementation of such social policies. The strain on the system of such expectations will become more self-evident. These changing expectations will spearhead an identity crisis in schools. Schools are now in a situation where they are expected to deliver programs in both academic and social development. While this is not a new role, schools have always recognized their roles in advancing academic and social skills, what has changed is the balance which is given to each of these areas. Social development has become an increasingly important aspect of school life.

The preparation of teachers, however, still continues to focus upon the preparation for the teaching of academic subjects. When teachers enter the educational system they find they are not always well prepared for the social aspects that society now expects them to teach. The transfer of this area of responsibility to the schools has led to a loss of focus upon the role of teachers and schools in our modern society. While expecting that schools will mainly have an academic focus, teachers find that they are now expected to engage in much more that the teaching of subject areas.

This is not an insignificant factor in some of the dissatisfaction which some segments of society are expressing about our schools. They complain that schools are not producing the type of student who is prepared for the realities of modern life. The unfortunate point, at least for schools, is that the realities vary according to the group who is lobbying for the change. Some argue for more business education, others for more technical education, while still others argue for more scientific education and so on it goes. Can schools satisfy all these various demands?

Teachers are rapidly coming to the conclusion that they cannot meet these various demands - at least with schools in their present structure. The demands are too diverse and too specific. Over the years society has expected the classroom teachers to assume more and more areas of responsibility without removing any of their previous responsibilities. Teachers have witnessed a loss of focus and the increasing confusion about what it is that an "educated student" must acquire in both knowledge and skills.

Evidence of teacher confusion and reaction can be found in some recent changes which teachers are adopting in their classrooms. The move to an "integrated" curriculum is not only a pedagogical strategy for improved teaching and learning, it is also a survival technique which teachers employ to help them cope with the myriad of additions to the curriculum. The development of "magnet" schools which specialize in certain curricular areas is a growing trend in parts of North America. The increasing rates of work related stress in teacher lives and the development of programs to combat this phenomena are evidence of this confusion.

In addition to the frustration of dealing with curricular change, teachers have been given much greater responsibility for non-teaching functions within the school structure. Over the years teachers have assumed responsibilities for co-curricular functions. These include looking after all school athletics, drama productions, musical productions, and activity clubs. Added to this are supervisory responsibilities for recess, lunch periods and after-school periods while students await buses or parents. The addition of educationally disadvantaged students to schools has meant that more teacher time is now spent in meetings designing programs for these students. Many teachers now complain that they are spending almost as much time in such meetings as they are spending in the classroom.

When all of these changes are placed together: the acceptance into schools of students with learning and/or physical disabilities, the implementation of social policies, the loss of focus, the pulling of the school in different directions, the additional curricular load, the extra non-teaching functions - it is no wonder that teachers feel frustrated and uncertain where it is all leading. All of these factors in combination leave teachers feeling that they are no longer in control of the situation. It is now time that we re-examined what it is we expect of teachers and of schools.

## Teaching and Technology

If curriculum does move to a transdisciplinary approach, it will become even more imperative that the role of technology must become more prominent in teaching. We are currently experiencing a short half-life for knowledge and this will become even shorter in the future. The amount of information now available to any one person is simply staggering. Teachers will have to incorporate technology into their classrooms in order to help students cope with this knowledge. Teachers have often feared the incursion of technology into their classrooms. Sometimes the fear centers around job security, sometimes around unfamiliarity, sometimes around economics.

If teachers are to adequately prepare students for a more technological environment than we live in today, technology must be a integrative tool in the teaching-learning process. Schools cannot afford to be one of the last institutions to incorporate technology - they must become among the first. The ability of modern businesses to store, access and retrieve information should be as common in our schools as it is in the business world. In fact teachers, students and schools have as great a need for this technology as does business. Schools can no longer employ the "2 x 4" (two by four) concept of education, that is, that all the knowledge can be found within the two covers of the textbook and the four walls of the classroom. Teachers must use the most modern technology to provide better instruction to students and to better prepare them for the use of technology throughout their lives.

## Teaching and Staff Development

Human beings and their institutions have a tendency to resist change. This resistance occurs for a number of reasons, including insecurity, lack of understanding, scepticism and conflict of value systems. Whatever the reason, the fact is that most changes will encounter resistance, at least to some degree. Teaching is no different that any other profession when it comes to this resistance. Despite the fact that teachers work in an environment that demands and expects change to take place, on a daily basis, for their students, teachers are often reluctant to alter the method by which they instruct their students.

Part of the reluctance to change teaching methodologies has resulted from experience with the "trends" of education. Teachers have attended in-service sessions which have introduced the latest "improvement", only to see it replaced within six months or a year by yet another "improvement". This has led, over the years, to a scepticism about educational improvements and their ability to make real differences in student achievement. Much of teachers' in-service experiences have also left them ill-prepared for the realities of implementation in their own classrooms. When they encounter implementation problems in their classrooms, they are not able to get immediate and appropriate assistance and, as a result, revert back to the "tried and true" methods that have worked in the past.

The time has now come for educators to re-think the way in which we organize and deliver in-service programs to classroom teachers. Studies (Joyce & Showers 1982, Sparkes 1983, and Lieberman 1981) have demonstrated the inability of unsupported one-day in-service sessions to effect real change. They have clearly shown that if we are to assist teachers in making positive changes in their classrooms we have to change the way in which we introduce and carry the change to teachers. First and foremost, change has to be viewed as "a process not an event". While this statement has now become a cliche in education, the message conveyed in this statement is still not being received.

To improve the in-service education of teachers, the lessons of research have to be applied to the practice of delivery. A number of successful strategies are now available for the guidance of those responsible for in-service delivery. They include:

- Create a context of acceptance by involving teachers in decision making and providing both logistical and psychological administrative support.
- Conduct training sessions (more than one) two or three weeks apart.
- Include presentation, demonstration, practice, and feedback as workshop activities.
- During training sessions, provide opportunities for small-group discussions of the application of new practices and sharing of ideas and concerns about effective instruction.
- Between workshops, encourage teachers to visit each others' classrooms, preferably with a simple objective, student-centered observation instrument. Provide opportunities for discussions of the observation.
- Lower teachers' perception of the cost of adopting a new practice through detailed discussions of the "nuts and bolts" of using the technique and teacher sharing of experiences with the technique.

One of the techniques which is receiving increased attention by teachers is peer coaching. It has been found to be especially helpful in transferring learned skills into the classroom. Peer coaching has been defined (Joyce & Showers 1981) as " hands-on, in-classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom". It is one of the most effective strategies for supporting change among teachers.

All of this information has been available for a number of years, yet many of the in-service programs delivered to teachers appear to ignore the advice which this rich body of research on staff development has presented. The time has now come for the incorporation of the research findings on staff development into the delivery programs for teacher in-service. Teachers need information, demonstration, practice, feedback and support before they can be expected to effectively incorporate new practices into their classrooms.

## Teaching and Educational Goals

Teachers will, as they have in the past, continue to do their best. What they are no longer certain of is what is in the best interest of the students. Can schools be all things to all people? What are the main goals we expect from our schools? If society is more complex in structure, how can teachers best prepare their students for this complexity? Does today's curriculum address the problems of tomorrow? Are schools, as we now know them, an outdated institution? Why is it that schools are one of the last institutions to adopt new technologies?

These and other serious concerns are clear barriers to effective teaching. While the teacher may continue to do the job to the best of the teacher's ability, it is an extremely difficult task when society is no longer clear what it expects of schools. At one time society expected teachers to deal with literacy and numeracy skills. Now it has come to expect much more. Yet exactly what constitutes that "more" is not clear. A fundamental question then has to be addressed - Why do schools exist? What is their purpose?

As stated previously, many groups will give many different answers to these very pertinent questions. Somehow a mechanism has to be found to pull all of these responses together and re-define the concepts of schools, education and teaching. One thing has remained constant over all of these changes and that is the recognition that the teacher is central to the quality of schooling. To the teacher falls the responsibility of implementing what has been determined to be the core of an education. Teachers are the practitioners who must interpret the curriculum, develop and implement the teaching strategies, and be held accountable for the learning of their students. On a daily basis, they provide interaction between the curriculum and the students.

Teachers believe that students in the next century will have to be more adaptable and more interpersonally mature with a deeper ethical sense (Heath 1989). As well they will need to be able to communicate and solve problems better and to develop an identity as a planetary citizen with a global perspective. If these are the goals of education, there is a tremendous gap between such goals and our existing definition of curriculum. Teachers have to address these future needs through a more interactive and interdependent delivery system.

## Teaching and the Future

Recently we have begun to see a change in the role of the teacher. The role has begun to change from the teacher as the source of all knowledge to a "facilitator" of learning. This is more than a semantic change. The information explosion of modern times has meant that it is impossible for any one individual to retain all knowledge. The growth of new information in the world is accelerating at a astounding pace. Many of today's facts will become obsolete in the next few years. Recent political changes in the Eastern Bloc countries are but one small example of this. Neither teachers nor textbooks will be able to keep abreast of all of these changes in all spheres of knowledge. The teacher's responsibility then has shifted from a purveyor of knowledge to a change agent who teaches the process of learning.

Noted futurists (Shane and Tabler 1981, Gay 1981, Laswell 1975, Ravitch 1983, Taylor 1985) have stated that because of the nature of future society, today's students will require specific skills to deal with life in that environment. They see future society as being driven by change, global, interdependent, technological and overloaded with information. Students living in that society will have to think critically, to reason, to question, to inquire, to use the scientific process, to remain intellectually flexible, to think about complex systems, to think holistically, to think abstractly, to be creative, be able to uncover bias and propaganda, and view and read critically.

Strategies such as Resource Based Teaching/Learning, Cooperative Learning and Whole Language have gained increasing popularity among teachers. These are experientially based methodologies that promote a high degree of active student involvement in learning. Teaching is changing from a dull, predictable, teacher-dominated, content-centered instructional pattern to one that emphasizes creative, dynamic process-oriented lessons.

This move to more active learning is creating a new collaborative partnership between teachers and students. This process is now beginning to alter the face of teaching. It is not occurring without creating some resistance and confusion among teachers. The change in the role of teacher will take time and for some teachers will require support and guidance. If teachers are to adequately address the future needs of students, however, the change must come.

## Teaching and The Curriculum

Tomorrow's adults will need a rich variety of skills and attitudes that will allow them to adapt to whatever happens in their society. This may necessitate exploring the whole notion of what we mean by curriculum. Most people still think of curriculum as being a list of subject areas that are taught in our schools. What is an integral, but often misunderstood, part of the curriculum is the development of skills utilizing content as a vehicle to develop these skills. Too often mastery of the factual information in any given subject area assumes a greater importance than the life-long skills which should be developed.

The subject area model of curriculum development has been with teachers since the time when the amount of knowledge was more static and stable. Perhaps the time has now come to develop a new model of curriculum. The subject area model does not, in fact, reflect the way that students learn. We do not break down bits of information into subject areas, rather learning evolves around an idea or problem. In trying to understand the idea or solve the problem students may draw information and experiences from several different subject areas.

If change will be more of a constant in the future, if learning is to be active and idea or problem based, then the time may now be appropriate for the development of a transdisciplinary curriculum. McClure (1981) warns that" *to continue to narrowly compartmentalize curricular content ... may inhibit youngsters'abilities to generalize, see productive relationships, or be effective solvers of complex problems (p. 183).*

The increasing interrelatedness and complexity of today's problems demands that we seek solutions to these problems in a variety of fields in order to foresee other problems that may be created by shortsighted solutions. Knowledge is not segmented but is very much interrelated. If teachers are to properly prepare students to critically think of solutions to society's problems they must have the skills and abilities to draw upon information and solutions from a wide variety of sources.

The process of learning will gain increasing importance for the students of the future. Less and less emphasis will be placed upon the passive acquisition of discipline-based subject matter. Instead teachers will focus upon the active seeking of knowledge by each student. This transition would see learning move away from an emphasis on learning facts to an emphasis on "learning how to learn". Learning would move from a knowing to a searching process. This change will see less demand for the traditional textbook and greater demand for additional resources and better classroom use of available technology to actively engage students in the process.

## Conclusion

Education in Newfoundland is at a crossroads. We can, as a province, determine that the route out of our social and economical problems is through the improvement and advancement of its educational system or we can neglect this route and try some other. The choice remains with its citizenry.

To-date the educational record at least in terms of statistics for literacy, numeracy, graduation, etc. have not been very positive. What keeps a province from having a successfully educated populace, a populace that through education can secure meaningful occupations, that can provide for its children, that can be sufficiently literate to understand society's changes and change to better understand tomorrow's demands? How can a province obtain a social, moral and religious conscience that will provide the strength to go forward and take its rightful place in the Canadian context? The answer to these questions are not easy to discover. However, one answer lies in education. It is as true today as it was at any time in the past. Our educational setting is presently beset with ills - ills that need to be exposed, deliberated on and solutions proposed and followed.

This paper took a look at some of the problems facing teachers today. The teaching profession is a troubled one and the "troubles" besetting teachers were covered at length. It is hoped that through this exposition, the Commission will suggest, if not declare, solutions to some of the troubles facing teaching.

The Commission has a most difficult task. Resistors to change ever abound. Maintenance is the hallmark of the status quo and, as such, maintenance generally suggests a refining rather than a restructuring. Yet in many cases, restructuring must come and if not now, when?

We hope this paper can help provide the canvas of teaching realities in this province and from the canvas a picture of educational restructuring may be easier seen.

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Chapter 14

# NATIVE EDUCATION

Frank Riggs

## Introduction

The majority of native people in Newfoundland and Labrador reside in Conne River on the south coast of the Province and in communities on the coast of Labrador. Conne River, a micmac community, has recently established its own school board with a Director of Education and operates independent of other provincial school boards. This paper deals with the education system of the Innu and Inuit of Labrador.

Almost all the Innu who live in Labrador reside in the communities of Sheshatshit and Utshimassits (Davis Inlet). The majority of Inuit live in the coastal communities of Nain, Hopedale, and Makkovik. Sheshatshit has a K-12 school with an enrolment of approximately 280 students and 20 teachers. Utshimassits has students in K-10 and has approximately 160 students and 12 teachers. The predominately Inuit community of Nain has a school population of nearly 300 from K-12 and has 27 teachers. Hopedale has 124 students in K-12 and has 13 teachers, and Makkovik, the smallest of the native communities has approximately 85 students in K-12 with 10 teachers. Figure 1 is an outline map of Labrador indicating the location of those coastal communities.

School enrolments for the period 1973-92 for Sheshatshit and Utshimassits are shown in Figure 2. School enrolments for Hopedale, Makkovik and Nain for the same period are summarized in Figure 3.

During the period 1973-1992 the provincial K-12 enrolment decreased approximately 21 percent. For the same period the total enrolment in the Labrador Roman Catholic School Board decreased by the same percentage. However, the enrolments in Sheshatshit increased by nearly 80 percent and in Utshimassits by more than 85 percent. This increase was due, to a great extent, to a relatively large number of new entrants into Kindergarten. For the school year 1991-92 Kindergarten enrolments in Sheshatshit and Utshimassits account for more than 25 percent of all Kindergarten children in the entire Labrador Roman Catholic School District, whereas the enrolment in those two schools was only 17 percent of the district enrolment.

A survey of the Inuit communities of Hopedale, Nain and Makkovik indicates that despite a 28 percent decrease in district enrolment since 1973, the school enrolments in Hopedale and Makkovik have remained stable during the past 19 years. The school enrolment in Nain rose sharply from 1973-1980 and has remained stable during the past decade. During the 1973-92 period when the district school enrolment decreased by 28 percent, the school enrolment in Nain increased by 49 percent. Kindergarten enrolments in Hopedale and Makkovik have remained stable since 1974. During the past five years the enrolments in Kindergarten in Nain have increased by about fifty percent.

What emerges from this survey is a clear indication that the Native communities - Innu and Inuit -are not experiencing the decline in enrolment that is evident in the Labrador school districts and in the province. Kindergarten enrolments continue to be high. However, it is instructive to examine enrolments more closely and although there have been increases - except for Hopedale and Makkovik which has remained stable - the number of graduates from schools in some of those communities remain small. For example, for the period 1973-78, between 6 and 8 percent of all kindergartens enroled in the Roman Catholic Labrador School Board attended Peenamin McKenzie School in Sheshatshit. For the period 1985-90, the period during which those who started school during 1973-78 would normally graduate, only 0 to 3 percent of the district's enrolment were enroled in grade twelve in that school. Since 1974, the school enrolment in Nain has increased by nearly 50 percent, whereas the number of students enroled in high school has remained virtually unchanged. In a number of the schools in native communities nearly 50 percent of the pupils are in primary grades compared with 30 percent provincially. In addition, the percentage of pupils enroled in high school grades tend to be much lower than in most of the schools in the province.

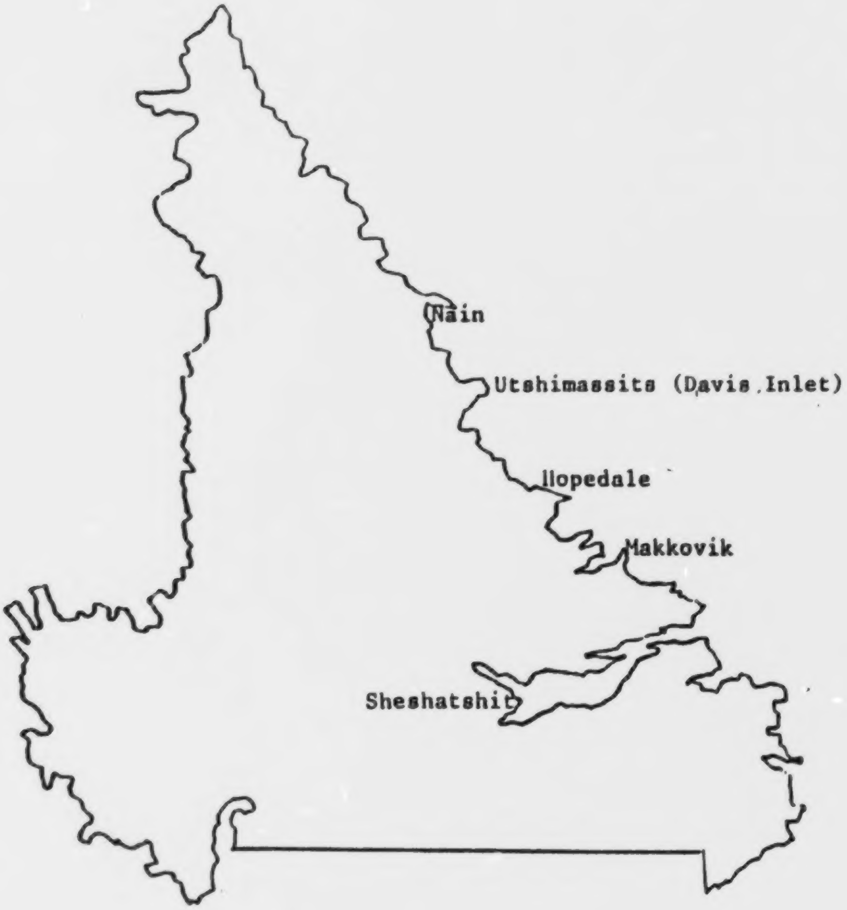

Figure 1. Selected Native Communities in Labrador

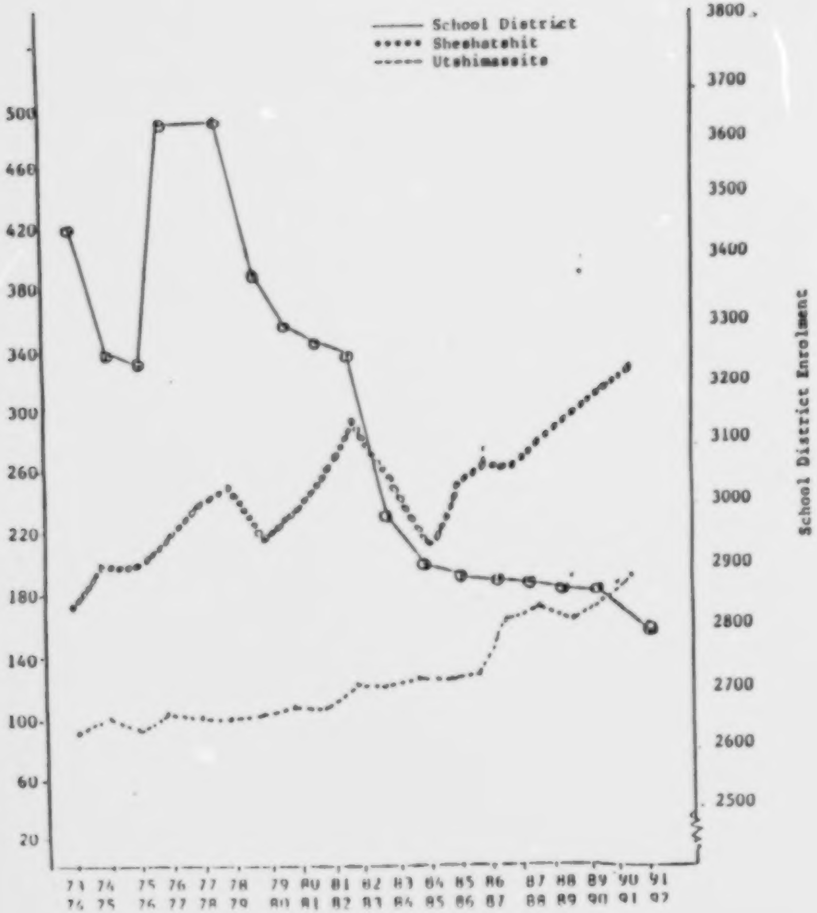

Figure 2

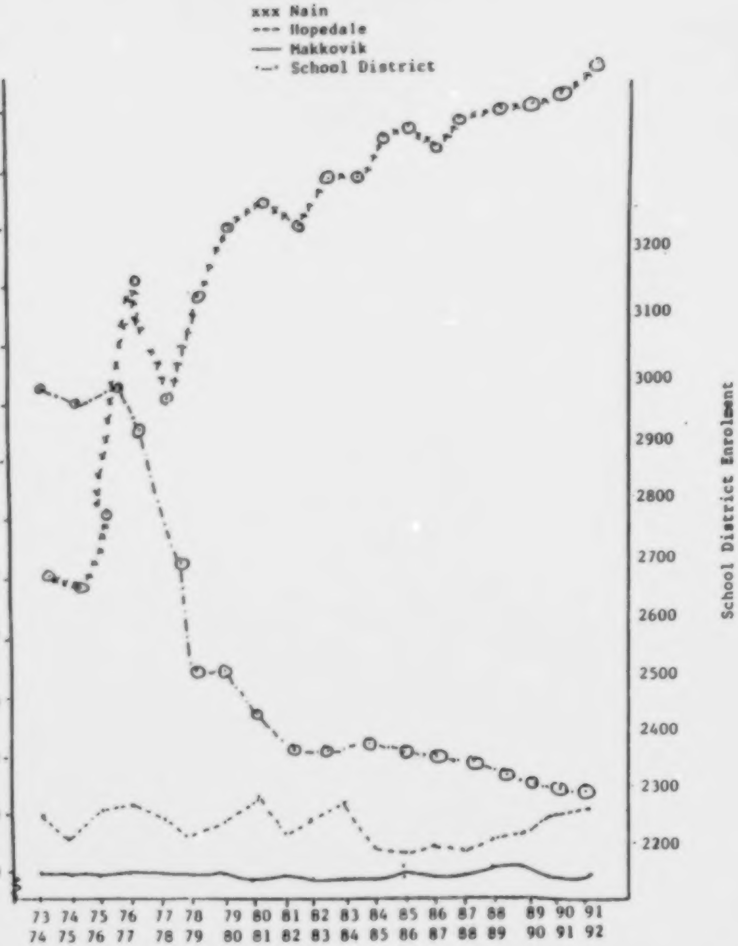

Figure 3

Those facts are acknowledged and are well understood by the leaders in those communities, and for decades this awareness has been the impetus for submissions to conferences, task forces and commissions.

## Governance

For many years, native people and others who have undertaken studies in native education, have expressed concern over the education system which exists for native children. The concern has centered on the lack of attention to the native culture in the school curriculum, to the lack of emphasis on native language and to the predominance of non-native teachers in native schools. This has lead some to argue for greater native control over education for native people.

Resolution 36 as stated in the proceedings of the Labrador Inuit Education Conference held in Nain in 1977 addressed these problems in a general way. It reads as follows:

> Be it resolved that the Labrador Inuit Association calls upon this conference to affirm and uphold the right of parents to control their children's education, and the right of native people to control native education.

At the Labrador Inuit Education Conference held in Nain in 1987, a speaker who commented on education activities since 1977 stated that "Back in 1977, at the first Inuit Education Conference, the main issue was native control of native education. Today, in 1987, we are still working for Native control of Education".

A brief presented by the Concerned Women for Education, Naskapi Montagnais Innu Association, and Sheshatshit Innu Band Council to the Catholic Education Council in November 1987 expressed a similar concern but with some temperance and elaboration. In part, they expressed their concern in this way:

> What we are talking about in the future is an education system that combines the best of both worlds. This must be an education that is broader than that presently provided to Innu children; that combines both a Newfoundland/Canadian Education with Innu education in the ways of nutshinit (the country), when students graduate we would like them to be able to read and write English fluently, but also to be able to make snowshoes and read in their own language.

Mr. Justice Thomas Berger in his Report on the MacKenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry (1975) summarizes it this way:

> "The Native people insist that they must control the education of their children, if it is to transmit their culture as opposed to ours. They say that the curriculum must include such subjects as native history, native skills, native lore, and native rights; that they must determine the languages of instruction; and they insist that they must have the power to hire and fire teachers and to arrange the school year so that it accommodates the social and economic life of each community.

This helps us to understand more clearly the complexities of the control of native education. It indicates that it is not control per se that is the goal but rather it is the means to the goal. The goal is to influence curriculum, to preserve or revive the native languages, to develop in children a sense of history and the values associated with that history and generally to develop an education system for native children that reflects the native culture.

For many, unless the native people assume control of the education system for native students, little progress will be made. However, not all native people favour a rapid change to total native control. In a brief presented to the Royal Commission in Nain on March 4, 1991, the Labrador Inuit Association expressed their view of the issue of control in the following statements.

> - What we need, however, is a school system which meets the needs of the Labrador Inuit as defined by the Labrador Inuit. Our goal would be to have an education system operated and controlled by our people.
>
> - If we are to effectively control education in our region, then we must have the decision making power to do this. We need to have Inuit people not only in teaching positions but also in responsible administrative and decision-making positions.
>
> - Our long-term goal would be to control the education of our children through our own native school board.
>
> - We would suggest a gradual transfer of decision-making power to the Labrador Inuit.

The basis for the suggestion of a gradual change is the recognition of a need for an infrastructure that would promote curriculum development and teacher education for native teachers. It is the opinion of some, in particular the Inuit, that it is necessary to move slowly but deliberately, with a focus on an improvement in the education system for their people. For them long periods of inactivity are unacceptable. For all natives, the status quo cannot be tolerated.

### Personnel

Snowden (1974) made the following recommendations regarding teacher education:

- The Commission recommends that teacher training at Memorial University of Newfoundland offer Indian and Eskimo cross-cultural courses to teachers who are considering teaching native children in Labrador schools. Salary recognition should be given for this speciality in language and culture.
- The Commission recommends that courses in Eskimo and Nauscaupai be offered in the appropriate schools in northern Labrador as a language elective for credit.
- Until such time as educational inequalities between Labrador and the rest of the Province is eradicated, the Commission recommends that:
    1. Memorial University examine its teacher training program with a view to introducing into the curriculum subject matter and courses which are geared towards the complexities of teaching in multi-grade isolated schools, and that skills in this area be given the status of a specialization;
- The Commission further recommends that:

  The Faculty of Education institute a cooperative teaching program to provide for extended periods of practice teaching in coastal Labrador for credit for students in their final year of training;

Acreman (1973) made a similar recommendation:

> We recommend that the University make arrangements for student teachers to do their student teaching, either in the two-week block in May, or through the internship program, in Labrador. We feel that the more prospective teachers know about Labrador and the needs of the children there, the more likely they are to seek teaching positions in the area.

One of the resolutions put forth at the Nain Conference (1977) read as follows:

> Be it resolved that the Department of Education and MUN take whatever steps necessary to develop adequate training programs for native and non-native teachers, and that student practice teaching take place in Labrador native communities.

Until 1978, there was no teacher education program that addressed the concerns of native education. A number of teacher assistants from Sheshatshit studied for a six-week period in Quebec in order to learn at least some skills to enable them to function more effectively in the classroom. In all Labrador communities, almost all classrooms were staffed by non-native teachers.

In 1978 a university program was developed primarily for native people who wished to become teachers. This Teacher Education Program for Labrador (TEPL) requires successful completion of 20 university courses including course requirements in native languages and practica in native schools. A second program, Bachelor of Education (Native and Northern Education) was approved in 1989. This program requires the successful completion of 50 university courses and includes options for concentrations in the areas of primary, elementary or secondary education, as well as courses in native languages and native culture.

Presently, approximately 70 students are enroled in Native teacher education programs. There have been 17 graduates from TEPL since the program started. The first graduates from the Bachelor of Education (Native and Northern) are expected in 1993.

Prior to TEPL there were no certified Innu teachers in Labrador and only a small number of Inuit teachers who met teacher certification requirements. The graduates from TEPL have caused a substantial improvement in the quality of instruction by native teachers. However, in 1992 less than 25 percent of the 82 teachers in the communities of Sheshatshit, Utshimassits, Nain, Hopedale and Makkovik, are native teachers who have graduated from a native teacher education program and who meet minimum certification requirements. If there are worthwhile characteristics in native teacher education programs and if, as submissions argue, that there is merit in having qualified native teachers in the classrooms in native communities, then greater attention must be given to the education of natives who aspire to be teachers.

## Curriculum

A number of reports in recent years have included reference to the importance of curriculum development in native education. A brief presented to the Catholic Education Council by the Concerned Women for Education - Naskapi Montagnais Innu Association of the Sheshatshit Innu Board Council in 1987 expressed the concern regarding curriculum content as follows:

> we are still a long way from getting textbooks and other learning materials that reflect our culture. Unless we stop the flow of non-Innu values into our childrens' heads, we will be assimilated into the mainstream of North American Society and we will cease to be a distinct people.

They continue in their brief to suggest that:

> we need to involve them (elders) immediately in an intensive and well-funded program of curriculum development.

Snowden (1974) commented on the importance of relevant curriculum. He wrote:

> School texts have very little to say about Labrador and some have almost no relevance. The curriculum does not give educational value to any of the skills possessed by northern people. The Commission

> recommends that the Department of Education through a regional office in Labrador call and form a conference in Labrador to begin a further examination of the present curriculum with a view to developing courses with local relevance.

The Snowden Commission further recommended that:

> The curriculum for student teachers contain special emphasis on Labrador, both in factual information about a little known area of the Province and in teaching of skills useful in the racially mixed Labrador North and Central.

Both the Labrador Roman Catholic School Board and the Labrador East Integrated School Board have made efforts to address the curriculum issue. Those boards have employed teachers who are employed full-time in curriculum centres and, in both boards, there has been a marked increase in curriculum materials which are available in native languages and which deal with native cultures and lifestyles. Whereas, there is evidence that the effort is resulting in benefits to the native children, it is, however, a slow process. In addition, the curriculum centres in both Labrador boards have placed a great deal of their resources on translation of existing material and school texts and generally the production of the materials is not as technically advanced as non-native materials which are commercially available. Whereas, there has been some development of local materials, it has not been sufficient to reflect, in a substantive way, the values and lifestyles of those who live in native communities.

## Discussions and Recommendations

In a number of native communities on the Labrador coast, there has been a sharp rise in the number of school-age children and this is reflected in the number of children who are enroled in primary grades but, generally, it has not translated into a greater number of graduates from the high schools in native communities. The retention rates, especially in Sheshatshit, Utshimassits, and Nain are very low. It is serious and must be addressed. There is evidence that the situation can be improved. We are aware of some initiatives in Canada that have been successful. We can learn from those but it would be unwise to copy them. Solutions to regional problems are not usually found by implementing measures used to solve related but different problems. The problems of native education in coastal Labrador are unique and the solutions to those problems will have to be unique.

There has been frequent reference and extensive debate during the past decade regarding native control of native education. Perhaps it may be instructive to examine the components which constitute control of education. What is it that would be controlled? Will the curriculum be changed? How? Who will deliver the curriculum? Who will be responsible for staffing? What will be the qualifications of those hired to teach in native classrooms? In reviewing recent submissions and reports, it appears as if those are the most pressing issues. It is important to focus on those in some detail rather than refer to the more general terms such as control and school boards. Those terms are meaningful only if the components which are associated with them are examined. If, for example, it is necessary to have control of education or necessary to establish school boards in order to influence curriculum, teacher qualifications and native education in general, then this should be done. It should not be assumed, however, that an improved education system will automatically flow by virtue of a particular structure. This is unlikely to occur. It is much more likely that attention to the various components - curriculum, language, teacher education - will have a much greater effect.

The lack of relevance and the lack of flexibility in the present school curriculum is often cited as a factor which contributes to the poor performance and the attitude of children. It must be acknowledged that despite the relatively small population of Newfoundland and Labrador, there exists a diversity in occupations, lifestyles and culture and that this diversity is nowhere more apparent than it is if we compare the native communities in Labrador with some island towns and cities, and even more extreme if that comparison is applied to Toronto or some large American city where some of the textbooks may have originated. To some extent the children who attend schools in many small and remote island communities experience the frustration of unfamiliar concepts in unfamiliar contexts, but the unfamiliarity is greatest in native communities. In many cases the content is unrelated to their way of life. The situations which are described are incomprehensible. The subject matter is not attractive. In many cases, the teachers are equally unfamiliar with the local culture and, hence, any attempt to establish a relevant context is difficult or impossible.

Despite the establishment of curriculum centres in both Labrador School Boards, the development of local curriculum materials is slow. Furthermore, the development that is taking place has not addressed the learning styles which may be unique to native cultures. It may be that the learning styles of the Innu or Inuit are not compatible with the sequence of the content which appears, for example, in the mathematics and science texts which have been approved by the Department of Education. Learning styles and cultural characteristics need to be studied and the findings need to be reflected in the school curriculum. Attention must be given to something more than the translation of textbooks.

It is recommended that:

1. A committee be established to study the relevance of the learning styles of the Innu and Inuit children in Labrador for local curriculum development.
2. A Community Education Committee be established in each native community with a mandate to coordinate educational activities and with authority to make recommendations to school boards on school staffing.

It was noted earlier that since 1978 approximately 17 native teachers have satisfied requirements necessary for certification. This certification has been granted on the basis of the successful completion of the 20 university courses required on TEPL (Teacher Education Program in Labrador). There are more than 100 teachers in the small coastal communities of Labrador and opportunities must be provided to those who have the minimum qualifications for certification to improve those qualifications, and opportunities must be provided for those who aspire to be teachers to obtain the necessary qualifications. The present rate of course offerings on native teacher education programs is not sufficient to ensure that the majority of classrooms will be staffed in the next 10 years by certified native teachers.

It is, therefore, recommended that:

3. The Labrador school boards, the Department of Education, and the Faculty of Education coordinate the offering of courses required on native teacher education programs to permit native teachers and native teacher assistants an opportunity to improve their qualifications at an accelerated rate.

There is an obvious relationship between sporadic school attendance and school learning. There are times in a school year when attendance in some native schools is less than 50 percent of those students who are enroled. This is caused mainly by the activities of parents that require them to be away from the communities for extended periods and consequently young children must accompany them at those times. It seems unnecessary that the school year in those communities should correspond with the school year in other island communities where there are quite different lifestyles.

In this context, it is recommended that:

4. The school year for students who attend schools in native communities be operated

on a semester system to permit accommodation of the lifestyles and cultures of those communities.

At present, few native teachers have a teaching certificate of Level 4 or higher; most who are certified have certificate Level 2. Although the certification levels of native teachers may, in general, be lower than those of non-native teachers, the presence of native teachers in native classrooms should have a positive influence. It is recommended that:

5. If certified native teachers are available, they should be employed to teach in schools in native communities.

The implementation of the above recommendations should have a substantial influence on native education, since they address the situation which exists in coastal Labrador and the concerns that have been raised in recent reports and submissions to the Royal Commission. The overall goal must be to improve educational opportunities for native children rather than create structures with doubtful effectiveness.

It is recommended that:

6. The effects of the implementation of the above recommendations should be evaluated in 1997. Independent and separate school boards should not be established at least until this evaluation has been conducted and consideration for the establishment of such boards should be judged on the effectiveness of measures which had been implemented prior to 1997.

Earlier, reference was made to the outstanding disparity between the number of Kindergarten entrants and those who eventually graduate from high schools in some native communities. The enrolments in Hopedale and Makkovik have remained basically stable during the past two decades and there have been only marginal changes in the number of annual Kindergarten entrants in those two communities since 1975. Also during that period, the number of pupils enroled in high school grades has not changed significantly in Hopedale or Makkovik. The Kindergarten enrolment in Nain has increased steadily and is presently approximately 50 percent more than it was in 1977. The school enrolment in Nain has increased nearly 35 percent during that period. Despite this increase the number of students enroled in Grade 12 has not changed significantly. During 1991-92 in the Labrador East School Board, of which Nain is a part, 7.4 percent of all pupils were in Grade 12, compared with 7.1 percent provincially. In Nain less than 2 percent of the students were enroled in Grade 12 in 1991-92 despite steady increases in enrolment during the past fifteen years.

In the Innu community of Sheshatshit only two of its 303 students were enroled in Grade 12 in 1991-92. The Kindergarten enrolment and the school enrolment have increased significantly since 1973. At Nukum Mani Shan School in Utshimassits, 7 of the 168 were enroled in Grade 12 during 1991-92. The percentages reported here for 1991-92 generally apply for the past 10 years; a period of significant increase in school enrolments in those communities. This is clearly unacceptable. If there is any hope of native people in those communities taking control of their lives, and of their communities and shaping the society of which they are a part and maintaining a language and a culture in which they take great pride, immediate attention must be given to this situation. It is not a situation which can wait to be studied but rather a situation which must be acted on. It cannot be ignored.

It is recommended, therefore, that:

7. A committee be established to study, in detail, the school learning problem in selected native communities, and that this committee be provided with the resources necessary to enable it to investigate the problems and to make its report within a very short timeframe.

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*PART VI*

# The Organization of Education

The issue of changing governance and administrative patterns in the delivery of educational programs and services has received considerable attention in recent years. A number of social forces are propelling the move toward greater school autonomy and accountability. For example, the desire of parents to have greater input into the education of their children has compelled some boards to delegate a great deal of authority to local school committees and to teachers and principals, while other boards have continued to maintain a more centralized structure. In chapter 15, Larry Moss was asked to investigate emerging issues and changes which have relevance to the organization and administration of education in this province.

The roles and responsibilities of central office personnel are as varied and complex as any facing educators today. The work of central office personnel is perceived as being critical to the successful functioning of the education system, valueless, or somewhere in between. Perceptions are the result of the position one holds in the system and the experiences one has had. For example, some view *program coordinators* as facilitators, organizers and promoters, others view them as having administrative and subject area responsibilities, while others see them as having some or all of these responsibilities. In chapter 16, Frank Cramm and Royston Kelleher were asked to identify, describe and recommend appropriate roles and responsibilities for central office personnel including assistant superintendents, program coordinators, and other specialists.

It has been suggested that one of the barriers to being an effective school administrator is the disproportionate amount of time and energy that some have to devote to issues that might be labelled as *maintaining the system* -- barriers which leave little time for instructional leadership roles. The magnitude of such matters may be placing heavy demands on limited time and often at the expense of instructional leadership. School administrators play a critical role in the performance of the education system. In chapter 17, George Hickman and Dennis Treslan were asked to investigate, describe and analyze the changing roles of those involved in school based administration.

Currently, about 70% of schools in the province have fewer than 300 students. This factor has resulted in multi-level grouping of students for instructional purposes in many rural schools. One suspects this has emanated more from educational expediency to deal with resource deficiency than from a philosophical desire to restructure. Whatever the case, there are serious implications with respect to the adequacy of programs preparing teachers for such assignments; the expectations with respect to curricula organization and content; the preparedness of students and the range of ages that can be tolerated; and the requirements for classroom planning. At another level, the concept of continuous learning is forcing us to rethink how we deliver curriculum. In chapter 18, Clar Doyle and Dennis Mulcahy were asked to review the current system of curriculum delivery with particular attention given to the issues of multi-grading and non-gradedness.

There is no typical school district in this province. The smallest has fewer than 300 students and embraces the entire province, the largest has approximately 20,000 students including only the St. John's urban region. In between there are districts of varying sizes and shapes created for reasons of geography and population. In chapter 19, Dennis Treslan was asked to investigate the factors generally considered to be important in establishing effective school districts.

## Chapter 15

# GOVERNANCE AND ADMINISTRATIVE ISSUES

Larry Moss

### The Issue

This entire paper is grounded in the proposition that administrative structures in education exist to provide guidance and support for the activities that occur in the classrooms of the province.

The issue of changing governance and administration patterns in the delivery of educational programs and services has received considerable attention in recent years. While the theoretical evidence and, indeed, the emerging trend in educational organization seems clearly to be in the direction of increased school-based decision-making and the kinds of governing and administration structures which support that concept, the general efficacy of this arrangement has not yet been empirically proven.

Overall, there appears to be a number of societal forces which are propelling the move toward greater school autonomy and accountability, not the least of which is the desire of parents to have greater input into the education of their students. There may be specific reasons for this including such phenomena as the crucial role of education in present and future society and the greater call for school effectiveness, the increasing drug problems, family breakdowns and the ensuing custody claims, and the reality of AIDS which make parents very much concerned with what students are exposed to and engage in within the enclosure known as the school. There is also the general increase in the call for accountability on the part of politicians and administrators. This may be as a result of the foregoing phenomena or it may be a part of it but, in any case, it is perceived that, through at least some local level governance and administrative involvement, education can be held more accountable than it can be from a distance.

There are, however, mitigating factors in the implementation of school-based decision-making. There are limitations which administrators must recognize in determining the degree of autonomy to be placed at the school level. Among these are school size, community social context, level of staff training, parental willingness to become involved, principal effectiveness, time available to the principal for leadership, and other administrative structures that may or may not be in place.

The present system of governance in this province was established in the late 60's and has undergone little substantial change since then. The roles and responsibilities of the various "agencies" and levels in the administrative structure are defined in legislation (Schools Act, Department of Education Act, etc.) and in regulations. In the intervening years there may have been slight deviations from the original legislation in some cases but these have been relatively minor in their scope and impact. Where emerging roles and responsibilities have not been defined by statute or regulation they have been assigned or assumed by protocol between and among the agencies. Similarly, as new services have been required or developed, the responsibility for these services has usually been assigned as much by mutual agreement an by legislative mandate.

Some boards operate close to the school level with a system of local committees while others operate more centrally. While the Schools Act of 1969 permits the use of local school committees (S. 22), such committees are not mandated and neither is there suggested in legislation anything more than a token role for such committees which cannot be more effectively and appropriately carried out by board staff or by principals. Where the roles of committees have been defined, this definition has been made by the respective boards and committees themselves.

Similarly some boards (or administrations) delegate a great deal of authority to committees or to teachers and principals while others maintain a more centralized structure. The general expectation is that most boards operate in this respect in accordance with some philosophy of administration with appropriate accommodation given to local conditions, both physical and human. The reality is that the level of local autonomy varies from one district to the next and this variance may be attributable to local geographic and demographic conditions as much as to philosophies of administration.

The internal structure of the Department of Education has undergone review and reorganization on several occasions since it was organized along "functional lines" in 1969. While divisions and branches, each with their specific roles and responsibilities, have come and gone, the basic role of the Department *vis a vis* school boards and other agencies has not been redefined. The personal philosophies of Ministers and senior staff have, from time to time, been articulated and have been evidenced in their practices, but the basic role of the Department has otherwise remained the same. The long anticipated new Schools Act, however, does outline the role of the Minister and the role outlined is in sharp contrast in its centralist tendencies to the openly announced and practised philosophy of decentralization of the previous staff and administration. In light of the tendency in the literature, and in practice elsewhere toward more school-based decision-making, the centralist tendency in the new Act could present a dilemma with respect to the reorganization of governance and administrative structures in this province.

## The Question

The Royal Commission of Inquiry into the Delivery of Programs and Services in Primary, Elementary, and Secondary Education must concern itself both with **what** services must be delivered and with **how** these services are delivered. Thus the Commission has initiated a study which will attempt to address the following issue:

> What are the major philosophical and operational principles and issues which would impact upon the degree of centralization or decentralization in a governance and administration system for Newfoundland education?

More specifically the study will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What are the components of educational governance and administration in Newfoundland and what is the role and responsibility of each?
2. What should be the province's responsibility in such areas as management, funding, curriculum development, curriculum delivery, accountability, etc.?
3. What should be the extent of responsibility of school districts in these matters?
4. What should be the extent of responsibility of the school/community in these matters?
5. What other groups or organizations have a stake and/or a role in educational governance and what should that role be, eg., churches, municipalities, local school councils?
6. What are the implications of 1-5 above for such matters as personnel deployment, funding, accountability?
7. Which model of governance would best assure efficiency, improve school effectiveness and increase public participation in education?
8. What planning and implementation process would be necessary to implement the findings of the above questions?

## The Methodology

A number of procedures, restricted by the time frame of the investigation, were employed in order to generate data for the study.

A limited literature review was undertaken with the assistance of a graduate student at Memorial University in order to identify the theoretical issues and questions relating to appropriate operational levels for the delivery of specific services in educational organizations.

The Assistant Deputy Minister, Finance and Administration, and the directors of the various divisions of the Primary, Elementary and Secondary Branch of the Department of Education, were asked in unstructured interviews to identify which services are presently being provided by their respective levels of operation to the schools and boards of the province. Following the identification of those services offered by the Department, two focus groups of superintendents, assistant superintendents and program co-ordinators, one in Central Newfoundland and one on the West Coast, were asked to identify the services which **are being** provided to the schools by their level of operation and by the Department of Education. Secondly, they were asked to suggest at which level of operation these services could **best** be offered and what administrative structures would be needed to achieve this.

After the services provided by these two levels of organization were identified, two focus groups of principals, one in the St. John's area and one on the West Coast, each representing both small and large schools as well as small and large boards, were asked to verify that the services identified above are actually offered and to identify any services which are being provided but which have been omitted by the other groups. Secondly, they were asked to suggest at which level of operation these services could **best** be offered and what administrative structures would be necessary to achieve this.

The levels of operation offered for selection are those presently existing in the province as well as other levels identified in the literature. These additional levels were regional and school or community which were defined as follows:

Regional. A level of governance which would cover a larger geographical area than most existing boards. Such an entity might take one of three forms.

1. A non-denominational elected body with powers and responsibilities similar to existing school boards and which would replace existing boards.
2. An administrative unit established by the Department of Education with responsibility for delivering direct services which might be too costly for individual boards to provide on an economical basis. Such services might include specialized program services, bulk purchasing, and specialized or common support services.
3. A formalized working arrangement between existing boards which would enable the co-operative delivery of such services referred to above.

Community. Two examples were suggested to enable group members to identify with the concept:

1. An elected school council made up mainly of parents, but with principal and possible teacher participation which would have responsibility for certain program and policy matters at the school level.
2. The present organizational arrangement, but with greatly expanded powers and responsibilities for principals and teachers.

**Literature Review**

The review of the literature for this study was limited by the time constraints and the accessability of appropriate research facilities to the writer. Nevertheless, with the assistance of a graduate student at Memorial University, a brief review was conducted and the summary which follows is considered by the writer to be representative of current thinking on three continents and, therefore, adequate for the present purpose.

It is vital that any restructuring of the system of educational delivery in Newfoundland must take into account the theoretical and empirical evidence available. It is also important to consider the actual experiences of other jurisdictions. It is equally important, however, to take into account the experience of educators in the present system and the historical as well as the social, economic and demographic factors which have made this province unique. While there can be no doubt that we can benefit considerably from the recent experiences of Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States and British Columbia, the education systems of none of these jurisdictions was shaped as ours was by the same environmental factors nor by the unique influences of the denominational education system. We must not, therefore, be overwhelmed by the findings of the literature, but rather we must distil from it that which can be effectively applied in our environment bearing these other factors in mind.

Decentralizing authority in education organizations, in more modern parlance the restructuring of schooling, has come to be synonymous with the empowerment of schools or school-based decision making. Although this is and has been the common mode in many jurisdictions, in others it has had to become institutionalized in order to be effected. According to Elmore (1990) the "first wave" of educational reform struck the United States in the late 1970's and was designed to emphasize the academic component of education and to encourage higher standards for students and teachers. The "second wave", extending from 1990, will focus on changes in learning, teaching styles and on changing organizational structures. Elmore warns that the present emphasis on restructuring is susceptible to failure for three reasons: the breath of political support will mean a lack of specificity and coherence; the history of unsuccessful school reform may indicate futility; and there is a lack of definition of what restructuring means giving rise to much political manoeuvring by interest groups. This latter point may result in some positive elements being excluded.

Cistone (1989) says that the recent interest in restructuring arises out of a conviction that any substantial improvement in education must come from better institutional arrangements and organizational effectiveness at the school level. In reviewing a number of articles on the subject, he concluded that a restructured system would include a school based decision-making body made up of administrators, teachers, parents and community members.

Centralized administration had its beginnings in an effort to guarantee certain minimum standards of educational offerings and educational quality within an educational jurisdiction. The reorganization which took place in Britain in the 1970's was based on the premise that many schools, particularly in the urban areas, had become isolated from the communities they were meant to serve. In an effort to counter this perception, many educational authorities experimented with various schemes toward the democratization of schooling (Bacon 1978). These schemes typically included the establishment of local governing councils or boards with such responsibilities as staffing, facilities, finance, curriculum and school organization. Under the Education Reform Act of 1988 this was made mandatory including the provision that the local boards will have to consult and take the advice of the head teacher. (Holdaway & Ratsoy, 1991)

Epstein (1991) looked at initiatives which have been taken at various levels to decentralize decision-making and to bring parents closer to the education of their children. The US Government is involved in such initiatives as Chapter 1 Programs, Head Start, Even Start and FIRST (Fund for the

Improvement and Reform of Schools and Teaching). State governments have developed policies on parental involvement in school governance and have established competitive grants to address parent involvement and program improvement. Districts have developed parental involvement guidelines, sponsored conferences and workshops, and established goals and objectives for parental involvement.

The literature of the school improvement movement also provides some insights into effective organizational arrangements, more particularly it emphasizes those arrangements which have been found to contribute to the effectiveness of schools. Stedman (1987), for example, examined a number of school effectiveness studies which had already been done. His emphasis was on descriptions of school practices described in these studies rather than simply on the outcomes of the research. He found that a significant factor in successful schools was parent participation and shared governance at the school level which included both teachers and parents.

With respect to parental participation, Stedman found that effective parental participation included good patterns of communications between the school and the home, parents being kept up to date on their children's performance, parents being involved in their children's learning, and parents being involved in school government including the use of school councils.

Stedman noted that there were no effective schools found at the high school level and he cautions that the practices which make elementary schools effective might not do the same for high schools.

In an effort to improve the effectiveness of its schools, the State of California, as well as some other states and local jurisdictions in the United States, has moved to institute and encourage more parental involvement at the school governance level (Chrispeels, 1991). The state has specified the types of parental involvement that it would consider a priority including better communications, parent voluntarism and parent involvement in school governance. At the district level San Diego City Schools formed a task force which examined ways of increasing parental involvement in its schools. This task force recommended parental involvement in school governance, better communications between the school and the home, and increased parental involvement in the learning of their children.

Brown (1990) conducted a five-year study which investigated centralized and decentralized school districts in British Columbia. He made a distinction between school-based management (education professionals) and political decentralization (parents-community). School-based management means that many planning and decision-making functions normally held at the district level were delegated to the schools along with a large proportion of their operating budgets, but it was school-based personnel rather than parents who were given the decision-making authority. He found that there were two main dimensions of school based management: (1) authority and responsibility along organizational lines, and (2) the range of decision-making afforded to schools which varied from one district to another. This decentralization was based on the premise that school level professionals know best how to allocate equipment and personnel at the school level. Brown concluded that although there were problems with school-based management, the possibility for school improvement was enhanced by the concept.

Cooper (1989) cites a number of reform oriented initiatives designed to give parents more flexibility in choosing appropriate education for their children in the United States. These are (1) the issuance of vouchers to enable parents to "purchase" education in the jurisdiction of their choice (2) open enrollment districts in which parents choose the school for their children, and (3) magnet schools in which the onus is on the teaching staff to develop and offer attractive programs. According to Cooper these suggest a three-tiered organization which envisage schools as the key decision-makers. Tier 1, the consumers: parents are seen as consumers who select from a variety of available options. They become partners in their children's education and, as such, become loyal supporters of the school. They also become governors of school policies through school committees. Tier 2, school districts: these would take on the role of "head offices whose functions would be to set goals and standards and providing accountability and support services. Tier 3, the school: this is where key educational decisions are made.

Budgeting, staffing, professional development, student retention, etc. are controlled from this level.

Not all researchers are as supportive of the degree of school-based decision-making advocated by some others. Renzulli and Reis (19__) state that, in their opinion, the major focus of the reform movement in education has been at the level of cosmetic changes in the way that schools are organized and managed rather than on the interaction which takes place between teachers, students and curriculum—on everything but the heart of the learning process.

Taylor and Levine (1991) claim that they see no evidence that school-based decision making is anything more than a restructuring of decision-making. They caution against increasing teacher participation and empowerment. School improvement will create many added stresses for teachers in addition to the ones they already have, thereby providing the potential for teachers to pursue their own self interests rather than that which is needed to create school improvement. They further state that school-based management can be a part of school improvement but, on its own, it will not bring about fundamental reform.

Lemotey and Swanson (1989) indicate that school based management may not be the most appropriate form for small rural schools. In large urban schools, although they have a coherent structure and agreement on goals, there appear to be few positive features about leadership. Principals have little curriculum control, teachers lack control over their work, and parents have little control over their children's education. In brief, there is a need for restructuring. In rural schools, where staff shortages are common, where principals are more likely to be inexperienced, where teachers are likely to be teaching outside their area of expertise, where the school is an integral part of the community, the possibility of a successful devolution of authority is slim.

Storey et al (1988), in a commissioned paper for the British Columbia Royal Commission of Education, state that citizens and citizen groups in twentieth century North America demand to be recognized as part of the mosaic of society but also to participate directly in the democratic process. In that respect, schools are a particular example. Parents demand to be heard, acknowledged and responded to, particularly at the school level, on matters affecting their children. This requires governors and administrators at all levels to be responsive. They further state that in our rapidly changing society audiences and stakeholders who have traditionally allowed schools and school boards to shape their programs and practices in relative isolation, will now expect an opportunity to impact key decisions and be included in a partnership role in educating their children.

According to the writers school (district) boards can be both a local unit of governance in the broad sense and at the same time remain close to the people they serve. They are capable of serving both an educational and a democratic mandate because of its proximity to its constituents while, at the same time, keeping the needs of the broader community in mind.

These authors call for a balance between provincial and local (district) control and between local and school-based authorities. They state that the question of increased school-level authority should be quite separate from the issue of local governing councils. While supporting the former they reject the latter.

> *We did not find evidence that school boards have served either learners of taxpayers badly...After having examined the literature and after numerous interviews and conversations with officials and parents in the United Kingdom and Australia, we cannot find compelling evidence that the elimination of local units of governance benefits either the operation of the system of education or the education of students.*
>
> *In our view the system of local governance of education through publicly elected boards of school trustees, mandated by the provincial government through legislation and other public policy, and by the local community by the electoral process, has served education well and is appropriate for the future. One of the most compelling arguments in support*

> *of this system is that of ready access to government through a responsible local body. Only through municipal councils does a citizen have a parallel opportunity for immediate and easy access to major policy decision-makers.* (pp. 21-22)

They go on to state that while parents want greater involvement in the education of their children, the school should not and can not operate in isolation from the community in which they operate, but that adding another level of governance and public policy decision-making at the school level was no guarantee that this would happen.

> *The conclusion we drew from the coincident weakening of local education authorities in Great Britain and the formation of parent councils was that parents were not in fact empowered by the changes. The erosion of authority from intermediate units of governance resulted in greater power residing in two areas: the central government and the school's headmaster...Specific questions about the new locus of power did not elicit any evidence of greater parental influence. The initiative to devolve governance and decentralize administration to the school level in Victoria State supported this observation...Generally speaking parents do not want to coopt the role of professionals, nor do they want to govern the schools. Parents want legitimate access by having been fully informed...Schools need to alter the widely held perception that schools are "closed". This can be done by accelerating the current trend toward more open two-way communication between teacher and parents. Second, schools and school boards need to establish ongoing processes of information and input through advisory groups which meet regularly and which have clearly stated relationships to schools and to the board of school trustees.* (p. 32)

The notion that British school councils do not empower parents is supported by Bacon (1978). He concluded that the innovation of school boards (local school councils) simply gives an illusion of local participation in the decision-making process. They may have the function of strengthening the public's perception of the legitimacy of school policies, but its real function is more likely that it strengthens the position of the administrative-political "elites" who are ultimately responsible for education. He claims that he found a wide gulf between what was officially claimed for the system of school boards and what actually existed. In his field studies he found that only a small professional minority who had frequent contacts with the school knew anything at all about the system. He further concluded that those who were elected were elected not because of any stated educational positions or on any particular educational issues, but simply because they were well known personalities and, because of this, they had no real influence on educational matters.

Another commissioned paper on Parents in Education completed for the British Columbia Royal Commission, while underscoring the importance of parents being involved in and informed about their children's education, stops short of recommending any institutionalized involvement. They state that the school system must place a higher value on "openness, mutual respect, flexibility, responsiveness and involvement" (p. 23) but affirm that "The responsibility for the management of schooling cannot be delegated if we are to hold those in charge accountable.' (p. 26) This working group suggests that legitimate parental concerns about education often touch upon such matters as adequacy and appropriateness, traffic safety, bussing, smoking, etc. and that perhaps special meetings of the school board or committees might be one vehicle for parental input on such matters. The group concludes with recommendations calling for improvements in parental communications, involvement and participation, advocacy and due process.

Jenni (1990) investigated reasons for the lack of success of school based management initiatives. Four propositions were examined and the conclusions reached were as follows: (1) that the inability of school organizations to move from one developmental stage to another did not inhibit SBM change, (2) that covert power issues played a part in the slow rate of change, (3) that individuals in the organization may or may not resist change, and (4) that the activities of site councils tend to be observational and discussional rather than advisory and decisional.

This brief literature review suggests a number of considerations to a jurisdiction contemplating school restructuring. These include:

1. There is a definite positive correlation between parental involvement in their child's education and that child's chances of success in school.
2. The purpose of restructuring schooling is mainly to bring educational matters including educational decision-making closer to the people whom it affects, namely students and parents. School level personnel should also be considered as being affected by such decision-making.
3. The essence of parental involvement in the education of their children lies in facilitating openness, and communication, and providing opportunities for advocacy and participation.
4. Although the trend in some other jurisdictions, especially in large urban areas, seems to be toward the establishment of local school councils as a means of facilitating parental involvement, there is no unanimity regarding the efficacy of such councils in that such involvement has not always been found to be meaningful nor actually representative of parents.
5. Since smaller rural school organizations tend to be more informal and flexible, and since principals and teachers in such schools tend to be less qualified and experienced, the principles of school based management may not be the best model to follow.
6. A useful distinction may be made between school based management (school personnel) and political decentralization. It is possible and sometimes desirable to increase the decision-making authority of the principal and staff quite separately from the establishment of a political authority at the school or community level.
7. Authorities must be very clear and specific concerning the goals of restructuring and these goals must be understood by participants and stakeholders before restructuring takes place if the restructuring is to be beneficial to education.
8. Restructuring of educational organizations has a better chance of success if it is in conjunction with an overall school improvement plan. First order changes by themselves do little if anything to improve the quality of education.
9. One of the most compelling reasons for maintaining a reasonable balance among school, district and state level managerial authority is to ensure consistency and equality of educational opportunity within local areas and throughout the jurisdiction (province or state).
10. There is a concern that teachers are already too overloaded with teaching responsibilities for them to become involved with more managerial responsibilities through school councils.

### Services Offered by the Department of Education

The Directors of the divisions in the Kindergarten to Grade Twelve Branch and the Assistant Deputy Minister of the Finance and Administration took part in unstructured interviews to ascertain which services were being provided to schools by each division. The division directors also provided written descriptions of their goals and programs. It should be noted from the outset that it is the position of the Department of Education that all of its services are offered to school boards and not to schools. It is the responsibility of school boards to pass on these services to schools as applicable. There are specific cases where services are offered to individual students and/or teachers but these are extremely rare and will be identified as they are mentioned.

The general role of the Department of Education as the administrative arm of the government in establishing and monitoring educational policy for the province was not questioned and was not subsequently discussed in the study. Neither were the responsibilities and services of the Denominational Education Councils. An examination of the legislated responsibilities of the Councils revealed that they are few, specific and clearly provincial in nature, and it was the arbitrary decision of the writer not to include them in the study.

### Finance and Administration Branch

The following services are being offered to school boards by the Finance and Administration Branch.

1. Teacher payroll services to boards
2. Pension services for teachers
3. Student assistant financial matters
4. Ministerial Leave under Article 18.10 of the Teacher Collective Agreement
5. Financial grants
    operating, library, school tax equalization, etc.
    transportation including approval and monitoring of board administration
    school tax approvals
6. Computer support and advice
7. School directory and Department Newsletter
8. School insurance with Treasury Board and DEC's

This division does not offer any support or administrative services directly to schools. It is, however, responsible, in association with Treasury Board, for teacher pensions which is a direct service to teachers.

### Primary, Elementary and Secondary Branch

This branch has four divisions which, again, provide and support services to school boards except in the few instances in which services are provided directly to individuals. In addition to services provided to boards, each division provides services to government and to other branches and divisions within the Department.

School Services. This division is the primary contact for school boards in legislative, legal and regulatory matters. Its major services to boards are:

1. consultation, advice and interpretation on legislation (existing and planned), regulations, policies, and teacher collective agreements providing for consistency of interpretation and application
2. assistance in preparation of board constitutions and by-laws for ministerial approval—usually in concert with DEC
3. assists boards in collective agreement arbitration when government interests are involved
4. approval of qualifications for board members, superintendents and assistant superintendents, department head and specialist bonuses

5. provision of professional development for superintendents
6. administration of school improvement program
7. administration of native policy programs for Department and affected boards
8. approval of school construction sites and plans
9. regulation and inspection of private schools
10. administration of teacher allocation formula to boards
11. administration of teacher certification (service to teachers)
12. chairs teacher Employee Assistance Plan

Student Support Services. This division provides support and services to school boards in special education, guidance, retention, attendance, and student assistants. In most cases the activities of the division in each of these areas of concern include planning, monitoring, and evaluation. More specifically the division provides the following:

1. program planning for those with learning difficulties and for the gifted
2. itinerant services (visual, hearing, speech)
3. hospital, home tutoring, secure and open custody and medically fragile programs
4. programming for School for the Deaf
5. Programming for Newfoundland children under Atlantic Provinces Special Education Authority
6. special transportation for handicapped
7. student bursaries
8. consultation and assistance in providing guidance services
9. advice, assistance and approvals for educational psychologists
10. consultation and programs for student retention and attendance
11. allocation of student assistant budgets
12. assessment approval and allocation of units for Severely Mentally Handicapped and Severely Physically Disabled

Evaluation and High School Certification. This division has as its major goal to improve student achievement, educational standards and the quality of educational programs through evaluation and monitoring and through clearly articulated certification requirements. More specifically the division provides the following services to boards:

1. regular achievement testing and reporting
2. information on the results of the evaluation of provincial programs
3. policy guidelines on student evaluation
4. criterion referenced tests and resulting information on provincial curriculum
5. norm-referenced tests on basic skills for inter-provincial, inter-district and diagnostic purposes
6. public examinations
7. in-service education to boards on all aspects of evaluation, testing and certification
8. administration of public examinations, scholarship examinations and GED
9. records of high school examinations, certification, GED and scholarship

programs

Division of Program Development. This division has as its major goal the provision, either through development or selection, of quality educational programs and supplementary support materials in accordance with the latest psychological and technological research. More specifically it provides the following services which are utilized by school boards:

1. identification of program needs
2. curriculum guides and/or course descriptions
3. reviews of existing learning resources and technology
4. development of new learning resources
5. piloting or otherwise field-testing of new programs and/or learning resources
6. providing approvals for new programs and/or learning resources
7. monitoring the implementation of new programs and learning resources
8. evaluation of new programs and/or learning resources
9. language programs services including French First Language, French Second Language, English Second Language, Core French, French Immersion
10. distance education services
11. learning resources lending (acquisition, copyright, duplication, etc.)
12. learning resources production (audio and video)
13. consultative services including in-service education of board program personnel

The descriptions of these services, in some cases, result from combining related services. They have been deliberately simplified for the purposes of the focus groups which discussed them. It will be understood by all personnel involved, for example, that distance education services includes the whole range of related activities from needs assessment, course development, hardware installation, etc. to the actual reception of this service at the classroom level. In any case where the simplified description turned out to be inadequate the writer was present for any needed explanation.

### Services Offered by School Boards

In order to ascertain which services were offered to schools by school boards two focus groups were formed. These were located in Central and Western Newfoundland and consisted of six persons in each group: two superintendents, two assistant superintendents, and two program co-ordinators selected from four boards in the Central Newfoundland area and three boards on the West Coast. The superintendents were selected by the writer while the assistant superintendents and program co-ordinators were selected by their superintendents. Not more that two persons came from any one board.

In each group the purpose of the project was first explained to the participants. The first task of each group was to identify the services offered to schools by school boards. For convenience, and to focus the discussion, the usual functions of school boards were divided by the writer into five categories: financial, plant operations, administrative support, personnel and educational programs. The degree of specificity in defining these services will vary but they are presented here, for the most part, as they were identified by the participants. The services identified were as follows:

Financial

1. lobbying for better financing
2. budgeting and allocations to schools
3. fund raising policies

4. payroll services
5. contractual services
6. bulk and centralized purchasing
7. accounting
8. loans and guarantees
9. accessing alternate programs and funding
10. capital planning
11. ensuring efficiency and economy

Administrative Support

1. policy direction
2. legal services
    - provincial/federal laws
    - board constitution and by-laws
    - collective agreement administration
3. accountability
4. lobbying for more favourable acts, regulations, policies, etc. in respect of such things as better teacher allocations, small school considerations
5. co-ordination and balancing of services and other resources
6. public relations

Personnel

1. standards including evaluation
    - conduct
    - competence
    - qualifications
    - suitability
2. allocations and assignment
3. labour relations
4. personnel administration
    - transfers
    - conflicts
    - leaves
    - personal development
5. recruitment
6. contracted personnel
7. personnel planning and staff development

Operations

1. maintenance
2. janitorial
3. bussing
4. facility planning and construction

new buildings
renovations and improvements

5. long term planning for efficiency
6. energy management
7. facility management
8. regulatory functions (life safety, health standards, etc.)

Educational Program

1. teacher professional development
   on-going
   specific
      Department generated
      district generated
      school generated
2. program enrichment and modification
3. local courses, units,
4. materials, equipment and supplies
5. priorization
6. leadership and motivation
7. local standards
8. public relations
9. shared services
10. sharing ideas and resources among schools
11. local special education

Following the identification of the services offered by boards, each group was asked to review the services offered by the Department of Education AND school boards and, by consensus, to suggest at which level (or levels) of organization such services might be most efficiently offered.

To aid the discussion the "levels of organization" suggested were as follows:

Provincial. Services offered at the provincial level which would be common to all subordinate levels of the educational delivery system. As a point of reference the Department of Education was the best example.

Regional. A level of governance which would cover a larger geographical area than most existing boards. Such an entity might take one of three forms:

1. A non-denominational elected body with powers and responsibilities similar to existing school boards and which would replace existing boards.
2. An administrative unit established by the Department of Education with responsibility for delivering direct services which might be too costly for individual boards to provide on an economical basis. Such services might include specialized program services, bulk purchasing, and specialized or common support services.
3. A formalized working arrangement between existing boards which would enable the co-operative delivery of such services referred to above.

District. School districts as they are presently constituted.

Community. Two examples were suggested to enable group members to identify with the concept:

1. An elected school council which would have responsibility for certain program and policy matters at the school level.
2. The present organizational arrangement but with greatly expanded powers and responsibilities for principals and teachers.

Following this process two focus groups of principals, one on the West Coast and the other in St. John's, were asked to review the services offered to or on behalf of schools by school boards and the Department of Education and to suggest, by consensus, at which level (or levels) these services might be more efficiently offered. The principals on the West Coast were chosen by their respective superintendents while those in St. John's were solicited by the Executive Director of the Commission. The West Coast group comprised five principals from three boards while the St. John's group comprised four principals from two boards.

### The Findings

There was a very high degree of concurrence both within and among the groups with regard to their opinions of the levels at which the services should be offered. This might have been anticipated within the ranks of district level personnel and within the ranks of principals, but the degree of concurrence between the professional groups came as a complete surprise to the writer. It was also hypothesized that principals in the St. John's area, who operated in close geographical proximity to both their board offices and the Department of Education, might respond differently than their West Coast colleagues. This hypothesis was also not supported.

In some cases the groups were unable to categorically state that a service could be more efficiently and effectively provided at a certain organizational level. In other cases they suggested that more than one level could and should have responsibility. The detailed responses of board level and school level personnel are given separately in the tables of the Appendix. The following conclusions are drawn from these responses by the writer and are categorized using the same divisions and classifications as were used for discussion purposes in the focus groups.

### Department of Education Services

Finance and Administration. The groups were practically unanimous that these services were appropriately provided at the provincial level. Where there was any deviation from this unanimity, it was to suggest that Ministerial Leave under The Teachers' Collective agreement and computer support and advice could be efficiently provided at other levels.

School Services. Again all groups agreed that most of these services were appropriately located. The one exception was the school improvement program. All groups suggested that such programs, while being properly initiated by the Department of Education, should be implemented by the school boards with major responsibility resting with the schools. This sentiment is evident in almost all areas of curriculum as will be seen below. Principals felt that the role of the Department of Education in providing professional development opportunities to board personnel should be limited to provincial initiatives where consistency was important. Surprisingly, board personnel made no comment on this matter.

Student Support Services. All groups suggested strongly that the role of this division in educational programming for the K - 12 system should be minimal and that the division should be restricted to the allocation of resources and to providing consultative advice. Administration of special education services should be the prerogative of boards, while programming should rest with schools drawing upon the advice of board and Department personnel as needed. Of all divisions of the Department this division was felt to be the most "intrusive".

Evaluation and High School Certification. On the assumption that the province has and will continue to have a highly centralized curriculum, participants suggested that the role of this division was appropriately placed. If more curriculum responsibility is placed at other levels of the educational system, some of these functions will have to be similarly placed.

Program Development. Both principals and board level personnel were of the opinion that curriculum development and implementation in this province are much too separate, that there is much more excellent curriculum development work going on at school and board levels than is acknowledged, and that this work should be formalized. Even in this relatively small province, there are numerous diversities in implementation environments, and adaptations to provincial programs are frequently necessary and different programs are often required. There is not necessarily much duplication involved by this local work since much of it is shared and much of it is developed for unique circumstances. In general the groups were of the opinion that much curriculum responsibility should be decentralized.

## School Board Services

Financial. Most of these services were considered by all groups as appropriately placed, although there might be room for decentralization in a few cases and centralization in others. It was generally agreed that direct financial services such as budget allocation, purchasing and accounting, should be kept as close as possible to the schools both for efficiency and for the opportunity of local input into financial decision-making. Some bulk-purchasing might be done at the regional level (as many boards now co-operate) but the cost-effectiveness of this is often off-set by the added expense of multi-point delivery. In addition some otherwise small service contracts might be efficiently administered at a regional level. All groups pointed to the importance of capital planning on a regional or inter-board basis.

Administrative Support. All groups agreed that these services were appropriately located. It was noted, however, that public relations and the co-ordination and balancing of services and resources to ensure equitable educational opportunities should be a function of every level of administration. Principals were concerned that larger administrative units would result in less local input into policy-making and in increased bureaucratization.

Personnel. Again there was near unanimity between the groups. Principals were of the opinion that, in the ideal world, the school administration and community would establish and maintain professional standards. However, given the reality of small schools which usually have the higher frequency of inexperienced personnel, the role was properly given to boards.

Operations. Again there was a great deal of concurrence between the focus groups as to the placement of these responsibilities. While there is a major board role in all of them some could be (in fact some are) shared. Bussing, which is already highly centralized, could be even moreso through co-operative efforts. All levels of administration should be concerned with facility planning and construction in order to avoid unnecessary duplication.

Educational Programs. Both school and district personnel agree that as much authority and responsibility as possible should rest with the school in matters of educational programming. This is often constrained by the level of expertise present and by the problems of school size, but it is a principle which should be respected. Outside program support services (eg. program co-ordinators) should work as close as possible to the schools. The potential also exists for more regional sharing especially in such areas as professional development, program development ideas, and special education services in small schools.

## Summary

1. The present organizational structure finds a great deal of favour with both district and school level administrators.

2. Both groups of educators were of the opinion that, in general, the role presently carried out by the Department of Education was appropriate in a province of this size. As demonstrated in more detail above and in the tables, the one area where more decentralization was consistently recommended was in the area of curriculum. It was acknowledged that there was significant input by teachers and board personnel into curriculum development at the provincial level but that greater opportunities should be provided for local (school, board, and regional level) curriculum development.

3. There is practically no support for any "regional" organization which would replace existing school boards. Participants, principals in particular, feared the increased bureaucratization that typically characterizes large organizations and feared that increased size and distances might decrease rather than increase operating efficiency and decrease opportunities for input into decisions that affected them.

   There was much greater support, on the part of both principals and board personnel, for more formalized co-operation among existing boards in such areas as bussing, shared facilities, shared programming, purchasing, specialist personnel, contracted services, in-service education and capital planning where these would be advantageous to all parties. Principals especially felt that the locus of decision-making and support in many areas, especially in curriculum matters, should be as close to the schools as possible. They pointed in particular to the current unproductive travel time between schools and board offices for co-ordinators and other support personnel, for in-service education and for meetings. This is especially so in the rural parts of the province and they pointed to the fact that this unproductive time would have to increase with centralization.

   Board level participants referred to "long-distance administration" and to the fact that effective leadership is possible only when there is close communication between leaders and followers. it was noted that the traditional "top-down" style of leadership is outmoded but "bottom-up" leadership is not possible by long distance telephone.

   It would therefore seem that the co-operative model of inter-board sharing would combine the increased efficiency of providing certain support services on a regional or shared basis while keeping educational decision-making as close as possible to the delivery system.

4. There is little or no support for elected community or school based councils with educational decision-making responsibilities. Although the role of parents in the education of their children is acknowledged, participants were of the opinion that there is ample opportunity for such involvement through the existing channels of patent-teacher associations, through school board elections and local school committees and through regular consultation processes carried out by schools. Participants also were of the opinion that such an arrangement (local school councils), whether the present structure of school boards remained or not, would lead to political friction between the levels of policy and administration, would mitigate against consolidation and co-operation at the local level, and would result in different standards (levels of service as well as levels of expectation in education, teacher qualifications and conduct, etc.) from one community to another. It was also suggested that the existence of multiple committees in small communities would add further to denominational differences rather than diminish them. In short, it was feared that such councils would bring back many of the shortcomings of the pre-1969 system.

   There is seldom one-best method of doing anything and that is especially so in education in Newfoundland given the diversity of environments that exists. Many schools already have excellent relations with their parents and some boards already have their own parental involvement structures and it might therefore be counterproductive to tamper with what works for them. Nevertheless, the issue of parental involvement should not be left to chance. Perhaps the principle should be established and the methodologies left to the local decision makers.

Neither was there any evidence that principals lacked the authority to operate their schools. There were very few instances in which principals suggested that roles and responsibilities should be decentralized from school boards to the school or the community level although there were occasional instances in which they suggested more shared decision-making and consultation. In fact it was remarked that the school should be concerned mainly with the delivery of education and that other entities be responsible for the providing the supporting services.

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Chapter 16

# A STUDY OF THE PROVISION OF SUPPORT SERVICES TO SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS BY SCHOOL DISTRICT PERSONNEL IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

Frank Cramm
Royston Kelleher

## I. INTRODUCTION

This study, one of a number of research projects initiated by the Royal Commission of Inquiry into the Delivery of Programs and Services in Primary, Elementary and Secondary Education, was aimed at the collection of background data from which would flow recommendations regarding the employment and deployment of school district office personnel within the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. The specific task of the study as indicated in the Terms of Reference was:

> *"To identify, describe and recommend appropriate roles and responsibilities for central office personnel including assistant superintendents, program coordinators, and other specialists."* (Royal Commission, 1991)

The foregoing task was situated within the following extended statement of the problem:

> *What are and should be the roles and responsibilities of central office personnel? The answers to this question are as varied and complex as any facing educators today. For example, "program coordinators" are viewed as facilitators, organizers, and promoters, while some view them as having administrative and subject area responsibilities, and still others see them as having some or all of these responsibilities. The work of central office personnel is perceived as being critical to the successful functioning of the education system, valueless, or somewhere in between. Perceptions are the result of the position one holds in the system and the experiences one has had. It is critical, therefore, that a comprehensive description of the roles and responsibilities of central office personnel and the perceived contribution they make be undertaken to clarify this issue and to recommend corrective measures.* (Royal Commission, 1991)

More specifically, the purpose of the study was to:

> Complete an analysis of the effectiveness of central office personnel. Summarize any relevant studies and survey various sub-groups to gain insight into:
>
> - the perceived roles and responsibilities;
> - the general satisfaction with the services provided;
> - the relationship with other educators;
> - the relationship with the Department of Education consultants;
> - the relative importance of such positions to teachers (process) and students (outcomes);
> - the kind and extent of services that should be provided; and,
> - the future direction for provincial policy. (Royal Commission, 1991)

The foregoing framework provided the basis for initial discussions with staff of the Royal

Commission, those discussions eventually leading to; (a) a broadening of the mandate of the study to include the role of superintendents in addition to assistant superintendents, program coordinators and specialists and (b) a narrowing of the focus of the study to an examination of the delivery of professional services to schools, teachers and pupils in the areas of curriculum and instruction only. Hence, this report does not deal with the financial administration of school districts, the roles of business managers, legal counsel, clerical and other such support staff and services.

## II. PROCEDURES

In preparation for this work, the authors focused on theoretical perspectives and on similar studies which had been undertaken in other school districts. Heavy reliance was placed on papers and reports which had been produced within the provincial context including submissions to the Royal Commission as well as a thorough review of role descriptions of school district office personnel which had been undertaken earlier by a Royal Commission staff member. (Strong, 1991)

With that background preparation, survey questionnaires were designed for administration to randomly selected samples of a variety of stakeholder groups within the province, including teachers, school principals, school district office personnel, and Department of Education personnel. To assist with the preparation and refinement of these questionnaires, a focus group of individuals representing various roles within the educational system was convened. That group was invaluable in providing critical assessments of initial drafts of research instruments and in providing guidance for the overall study.

In order to assure anonymity of respondents, while simultaneously providing for an effective follow-up process, all individuals were mailed a copy of the appropriate questionnaire as well as a stamped postcard to be returned close to the time of mailing of the completed questionnaire. Follow-up procedures were initiated with those from whom postcards had not been received, initially by letter and subsequently by personal telephone call. Table 1 presents a breakdown of the number and percentage of completed questionnaires received as of May 15, 1991, the date on which analysis of the responses was initiated.

Table 1. Number and Percentage of Respondents by Group

| Group | Sample Size | Returned Questionnaires | Percentage Return |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers | 120 | 88 | 73 |
| Principals | 72 | 50 | 70 |
| District Office Personnel | 51 | 40 | 78 |
| Department of Education Personnel | 34 | 22 | 65 |
| Totals | 277 | 200 | 72 |

It was decided to undertake an essentially "qualitative" approach to this study for two reasons; first, on the basis of the literature, it seemed clear that although a quantitative approach might result in a description of existing arrangements and evaluative ratings of those arrangements, it probably could not provide the opportunity to gather the wealth of innovative and creative ideas needed to generate new models, or for that matter to suggest modifications to existing models. Second, we hoped to construct the questionnaires in such a manner as to allow each respondent to write a personal 'brief' to the Royal Commission regarding this particular aspect of the delivery of education within the province. As will be seen later, some quantitative data were collected, however, the bulk of the data take the form of open-ended responses, many of which provide explanations and reasons for the ratings of various aspects of the existing system.

In order to analyze the open ended data, each author independently and privately read all responses. After tentative coding schemes, based on emerging concepts and themes, had been independently arrived at, each researcher shared his analysis with the other following which extent of agreement was discussed. Interestingly, although there were some discrepancies in the two tentative coding schemes, there was a high level of agreement with respect to the major themes emerging from the data. Following agreement on a final coding scheme, all qualitative data were reanalyzed, the results of that analysis serving as the basis for the following section of this report.

## III. FINDINGS

The findings of this report will be presented in three parts. The first will describe the responses of principals and teachers, the second will present the views of Department of Education personnel, and the final section will deal with the perceptions of respondents from school district offices around the province.

In the presentation of the findings we have opted to provide a relatively complete picture of the data by including large numbers of verbatim quotations from respondents. In doing so, we risk a lengthy report, perhaps unnecessarily so, however, the reader has the advantage of a relatively complete corpus of data from which s/he may extract alternative interpretations from those presented by the authors.

### RESPONSES OF PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

The findings of this section are presented under the following headings:

- Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Superintendents in Curriculum and Instruction;
- Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Assistant Superintendents in Curriculum and Instruction;
- Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Program Coordinators in Curriculum and Instruction;
- Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Specialists in Curriculum and Instruction;
- Type and Value of Other Professional Services Provided by District Office Personnel;
- Additional Needs/Concerns Identified by Principals and Teachers; and
- Principal/Teacher Recommendations With Respect to Current Provincial Structure.

#### Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Superintendents in Curriculum and Instruction

Although it may be argued that it is unwise, impractical, and perhaps impossible to discuss curriculum and instruction separately (see discussion beginning p. 96), we nevertheless agreed for purposes of questionnaire design, that teachers and school administrators would be asked to assess the effectiveness of superintendents, assistant superintendents, program coordinators and specialists in each of those two spheres. This section, then, deals first with superintendents' roles in the provision of curriculum support services, followed by an analysis of the findings regarding their roles in the area of instruction.

As indicated above both principals and teachers were asked to rate the extent to which superintendents were deemed to be effective in meeting the needs of schools and teachers in the area of curriculum/program development. Table 2 presents those ratings.

Table 2. Principal/teacher Ratings of Superintendent Effectiveness in the Area of Curriculum/program Development

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 9 | 11 | 11 | 13 | 16 | 20 | 11 | 13 | 35 | 43 |
| Principals | 4 | 9 | 16 | 36 | 9 | 20 | 11 | 24 | 5 | 11 |
| Total | 13 | 10 | 27 | 21 | 25 | 20 | 22 | 17 | 40 | 31 |

Although no clear picture emerges from the ratings in Table 2, the analysis of open-ended comments from respondents suggests some explanations. The most frequent comment, particularly from teachers, about the role of superintendents in the area of curriculum related to the fact that they had very little contact with their superintendent and therefore were not in a position to make an assessment. This perhaps explains the fact that 43 percent of all teacher respondents indicated they were "unable to judge" the work of the superintendent in this area. The following comments are illustrative.

> *[Never] in my 20 years of experience, 19 of which have been with my present board, has the Superintendent spoken to me individually or in a group on curriculum/program development.* (Elementary teacher, 20 years experience, Certificate VII, >75 km from district office).
>
> *I am not aware of any contributions made by these groups (Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents) re curriculum matters. Nobody from these groups has ever visited my class, or for that matter has ever spoken to me concerning any aspect of curriculum development or curriculum delivery.* (Senior high teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from district office).
>
> *In the past school year, I have seen the Superintendent once, from a distance.* (Junior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from district office).
>
> *I have had no direct communication with the superintendent or assistant superintendent with regard to curriculum/program development, therefore I am unable to judge. My contacts with the superintendent and assistant superintendent are mainly in the area of policy making. Being a primary teacher, I feel they don't always understand or know what's going on in primary classrooms. They have had no primary education training and have never taught primary or spent any time in the classroom with children....* (Grade 2 teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from district office).
>
> *Never see them and only hear from them when positions are redundant. Very little to do with curriculum.* (Primary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from district office).
>
> *I have had absolutely no contact with the Superintendent (except for a PTA meeting).* (Grade 3 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from district office).
>
> *"I have had no contact with the Superintendent."* (Primary/Elementary French teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from district office).
>
> *"I rarely see these people. I usually see the Superintendent once a year."* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from district office)

> *"No direct contact in matters of curriculum development at the school level.* (Senior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from district office).

> *With regard to curriculum/program development, we have little personal contact with either superintendents or their assistants.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from district office).

> *Maybe superintendents are effective behind the scenes in terms of curriculum/program development. As a classroom teacher, however, my main contact with them has been relative to.... applications for leave, transfers, etc.* (Primary/Special Education teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from district office).

While fewer principals than teachers were "unable to judge" the effectiveness of superintendents in the area of curriculum/program development, nevertheless some principals enunciated similar comments to those expressed by teachers.

> *"I assume that the Superintendent works behind the scenes, however, I have no concrete evidence that indicates that the Superintendent initiates or plays a role in curriculum development.* (Elementary school principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from district office).

> *The Superintendent does not come to our school to deal with curriculum matters at all. The few times he is in our school, it is to deal with some administrative matter.* (Principal K-8 school, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from district office).

> *The Superintendent is effective only to the extent of involvement in resource provisions. In curriculum development the superintendent is too removed from the scene of the action to be effective except in a very general way.* (Principal, K-6 School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from district office).

A second grouping of respondents included those principals and teachers who felt that although superintendents were either "not effective" or "of limited effectiveness" in the area of curriculum/program development, that was as it must be. As implied in several of the preceding quotations, superintendents were seen as being preoccupied with "administration", necessarily removing them from matters directly related to curriculum. The following comments are more explicit on this point.

> *Superintendents seem to be occupied with school closure, re-arrangement of staffs, budget cuts and how to best use funds. I think they must leave curriculum to others in the office.* (Grade 2 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from district office).

> *The Superintendent is mostly concerned with overall administration of the board and financial matters rather than curriculum.* (Senior high teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from district office).

> *I feel this area is not the responsibility of the superintendent. I feel he is very dedicated and providing a good service. He is an administrator.* (Secondary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from district office).

> *I feel their roles appear to be more in the managing and organizing of personnel and in dealing with managerial crisis. New programs are usually forwarded to teachers in the form of written correspondence or through principals.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from central office).

> *I view the Superintendent as a person who is very busy in the everyday running of the system and district and doesn't have the time to familiarize himself with the programs of the primary child.* (Kindergarten teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from district office).

> *I know that he speaks for the board at government levels and to the media. Other than that, he gives the final say on storm weather. Our [Superintendent] is much more concerned with liability than providing an academic program.* (Junior high teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from district office).

Some principals echoed views of the role of the superintendent similar to those expressed by teachers above.

> *The Superintendent is often preoccupied with administrative decisions rather than curriculum development. The farther one is removed from the activities at the school level, the more likely one is perceived as not effectively contributing.* (Junior high principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from district office).

> *[The Superintendent's] concerns are more related to administration. Not involved directly with the teachers. He is tied to an office.* (Principal K-9 school, 10-20 years, administrative experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from school district office).

> *The superintendent's time is spent mostly in the management of the district, or lobbying government for funding to handle the day-to-day operations of the system.* (Principal, all-grade school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from school district office).

> *The superintendent appears to be mainly involved in the day-to-day operation of the school district and less involved in program delivery, etc.* (Principal K-VII school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from district office).

> *Superintendents are tied up with management problems and petty political problems in the area. Has lost touch with how schools are changing in society.* (Principal, secondary school, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from district office).

> *In a large board it is difficult to attribute effect directly to the superintendent. Obviously all matters are under his control and responsibility.* (Senior high principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from district office).

In contrast to the portrait depicted in the preceding pages, some teachers and principals saw superintendents as being either "effective" (20% of both groups) or "very effective" (13% of teachers and 24% of principals) in the area of curriculum. Invariably, in their explanations of those ratings, they pointed to very active and visible roles in curricular and programmatic matters.

> *...the superintendent demonstrates his effectiveness by providing inservice meetings where matters concerning the implementation of new programs, interpretation of curriculum documents and the modification of provincial programs are focused on. This gives teachers an opportunity to become aware of any significant changes and possibly work toward any desired goal.* (Secondary school teacher, 3-10 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from district office).

> Superintendent
>
> - *always there to support teachers who want to try new programmes and initiate new programmes,*
> - *open to change for betterment of pupils,*
> - *holds monthly meetings with principals,*
> - *keeps up with current trends in education,*
> - *has been a leader in implementing new programmes in some areas.* (Grade 4 teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate IV, < 10 km from district office).

> *Superintendents are the instructional leaders of our school board and as such they have to be effective. They must initiate curriculum/program development.* (Grade 9 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

> *He is the leader of the educational system in our area. It is his overall responsibility to be effective in meeting our needs in the area of curriculum/programs development. He is very conscientious and gives all to his work. He is aware of current trends in education.* (Grade 2 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate IV, 26-75 km from board office).

> *They are collectively (Superintendent and Assistant Superintendent) perceived as the real decision makers and have proven to be so. Technically they are power brokers and initiate as well as ensure implementation.* (Teacher all-grade school, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 210 km from

district office).

As with teacher respondents, a number of principals highlighted the leadership role of the superintendent in curriculum matters.

> *Our Superintendent has a "vision". He looks towards the future and tries to motivate all personnel to aim for the highest possible standard in education. He is extremely well read and is on top of the latest technologies and approaches to instruction. I feel he offers leadership and support.* (Principal K-IV School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI <10 km from district office).
>
> *The Superintendent for our district is very supportive of any new programs. He has given support for the piloting of new courses and for the introduction of an "elective" program.* (Principal, Junior High School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from district office).
>
> *In the School District both Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents are highly visible throughout the district and maintain constant high profiles in the schools.* (Principal, All grade school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from district office).
>
> *While I have had very limited direct dealings with the Superintendent, I know that he is fully aware of and keenly interested in this area. He demonstrates an excellent knowledge of curriculum/program development at the school level.* (Vice-Principal Secondary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from district office).
>
> *I have had experience with three Superintendents under this board and find that each has had curriculum/program development as a number one priority.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >75 km from district office).

A third theme emerging from teacher and principal comments centered on the fact that although the superintendent may not be directly involved in curriculum matters, such lack of personal involvement derives not from a lack of interest but from a need to delegate such matters to others within the jurisdiction.

> *Superintendents with whom I have worked have not involved themselves directly in curriculum/program development. They have left that to Assistant Superintendents and Programme Co-ordinators.* (Principal, Elementary School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from district office).
>
> *Most curriculum/program development is handled by Coordinators, directed, empowered and facilitated by Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents.* (Principal, Junior High School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from district office).
>
> *He provides the opportunity for others to do the job.* (Principal, K-6 school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 11-25 km from district office).
>
> *They have assigned one of the assistant superintendents to this post showing how important it is.* (Secondary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from district office).
>
> *Small district. Co-ordinators are responsible for only 4 schools, 5 km apart. Programs are very effectively implemented but any work by Superintendent and Assistant Superintendent would be likely through Coordinators whom we see frequently.* (Grade 5 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from district office).

In addition to the foregoing, eight of the respondents noted that logistical problems caused by geography and numbers of personnel per district made it impossible for superintendents to be meaningfully involved in program/curriculum matters. Table 3 presents a summary breakdown of the categories emerging from the open-ended comments of teachers and principals regarding the effectiveness of superintendents in curriculum/program development.

Table 3. Principal/Teacher Comments Regarding Superintendent Effectiveness in Curriculum

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | N | % | N | % |
| Little knowledge of and/or contact with Superintendent | 30 | 34 | 14 | 28 |
| Superintendent preoccupied with matters other than curriculum | 15 | 17 | 12 | 24 |
| Superintendent personally demonstrates leadership role in curriculum | 20 | 25 | 12 | 24 |
| Superintendent delegates responsibility for curriculum | 19 | 22 | 8 | 16 |
| Logistical problems detract from effectiveness | 0 | 0 | 8 | 16 |
| No reason provided | 15 | 17 | 4 | 8 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 9 | 10 | 5 | 10* |

* Given that some respondents listed more than one reason, the totals in this and other similar tables may exceed 100 percent.

As indicated earlier, principals and teachers were posed one additional question with respect to the role of superintendents. They were asked to rate the extent to which superintendents were effective in meeting the needs of schools and teachers in the area of instruction. Table 4 provides a summary of those ratings.

Table 4. Principal/teacher Ratings of Superintendent Effectiveness in the Area of Insteuction

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 19 | 24 | 12 | 15 | 10 | 13 | 4 | 5 | 35 | 44 |
| Principals | 9 | 21 | 16 | 37 | 8 | 19 | 6 | 14 | 4 | 9 |
| Total | 28 | 23 | 28 | 23 | 18 | 15 | 10 | 8 | 39 | 32 |

The ratings for superintendents in the area of instruction provided by both teachers and principals were slightly lower than in the area of curriculum. While approximately the same numbers of teachers and principals indicated they were "unable to judge" superintendent effectiveness in the area of instruction, the percentage rating the superintendent as either "effective" or "very effective" (23% of principals and teachers) was lower than in the area of curriculum (37%). Conversely, the percentages rating the superintendent as either "not effective" or "of limited effectiveness" were higher; whereas 46 percent of the combined group of teachers and principals provided these ratings for superintendents in the area of instruction, only 31 percent indicated those levels of effectiveness in curriculum.

The foregoing differences notwithstanding, and perhaps, not surprisingly, the comments from principals and teachers parallel those dealing with the superintendent's role in curriculum. By far, the largest percentages of teachers and principals indicated they had little knowledge of or contact with the superintendent in the area of instruction. Many simply stated they had "no contact" or "limited contact" with the superintendent. Other variations on the theme are reflected in the following brief responses: "I have not had the opportunity to deal with the Superintendent long enough to judge his performance"; "Never in the schools"; "Not a factor in my instruction"; "I have had no opportunity to speak with this person to date" and "Little or nothing to do with instruction." Similarly, as with the area of curriculum, some respondents felt the superintendent was too preoccupied with other matters to deal with instructional issues.

> *It is difficult to judge because so much of his time seems to be taken up with administrative responsibilities.* (Primary Special Education Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from district office).
>
> *Except for memos or material passed on through the principal, there is little contact. Operating such a large board allows very little time for personal involvement with classroom teachers.* (Grade 3 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate IV, < 10 km from district office).
>
> *For the most part his position is administrative, with little or no contact/relevance to in-class activities.* (Secondary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, >75 km from board office).
>
> *I have no official contact with the Superintendent on a day to day basis. I assume he is working on more of an administrative level and is not working directly with teachers on issues (instructional) raised in question #8.* (Junior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from district office).
>
> *Superintendents in our board are too busy with the administrative aspect of education to have much impact on instruction.* (Grade 9 teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

A number of principals concurred with the comments forthcoming from teachers.

> *They are caught up so heavily in administrative duties that there is no time to take an active role in the area of instruction.* (Primary school principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *[The Superintendent is] not directly effective because he is involved in the district administration.* (Principal K-6 School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *Involved with maintaining what is, i.e., keeping plants running - making sure bills are paid, etc. Perhaps at this level, action is merely "putting out fires" and tending to the "squealing wheels.* (Primary school principal, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 11-25 km from board office).

Furthermore, as with the area of curriculum, some respondents assumed that the superintendent would delegate responsibility for instructional support to others at the school district office.

> *His personnel have been assigned to these areas and whenever schools want them they are available.* (Secondary school teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from district office).
>
> *Programmes are very effectively implemented but any work by the Superintendent would be likely done through coordinators whom we see frequently.* (Grade 5 teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *This area would appear to be the responsibility of others on staff.* (Junior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *I am unable to judge their (Superintendents') effectiveness. I always felt this area [instruction]*

> *was left more to program coordinators and specialists.* (Grade I teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

> *The Superintendent does an effective job when possible. Usually he is tied up with many administrative duties and designates other people to look after this [instruction] while acting as an overseer of the whole process.* (Elementary school teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office).

> *This duty has been delegated to the Assistant Superintendent responsible for curriculum* (Principal elementary school, 9 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, >76 km from board office).

The foregoing notwithstanding, some teachers and principals saw the superintendent's role as pivotal in the area of instructional improvement.

> *Through the Superintendent and Assistant Superintendent, the schools receive great support for professional development, workshops, planning days for the school and the district, student evaluation committees, and other areas of improving school climate. They are also supportive of teachers attending curriculum workshops both locally and provincially.* (Junior high principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).

> *These persons have taken the leadership in terms of allocating funds and resources to provide valuable inservice in the areas indicated above* (Principal, all-grade school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).

> *The Superintendent initiates projects and makes the necessary arrangements to make sure the programs or projects are brought to fruition. Regardless, without his support and willingness little would be accomplished.* (Principal elementary school, 11-20 years administrative experience, <10 km from board office).

> *Very quick to permit teachers to attend all special interest council meetings and conferences so that teachers can meet and share classroom ideas. Committees of district school administrators and teachers are often set up to evaluate new ideas.* (Grade 4 teacher, 3-10 years teaching experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office).

> *My Superintendent has been very supportive in the past when I have requested inservice from outside agencies. He has also made my coordinator do his best to assist when approached to do so. He is also a very reasonable person to discuss things with.* (T.M.H. Special Needs teacher, 11-20 years experience, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office).

Table 5 presents a complete breakdown of the categories of comments forthcoming from teachers and principals regarding the effectiveness of Superintendents in the area of instructional support to schools and teachers. As suggested earlier there is striking similarity, probably to be expected, between the themes emerging with respect to the role of the superintendent in curriculum (see Table 3) and his/her role in instruction.

Table 5. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Superintendent Effectiveness in Instruction

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Little knowledge of and/or contact with Superintendent | 41 | 47 | 15 | 30 |
| Superintendent preoccupied with matters other than instruction | 15 | 17 | 10 | 20 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Superintendent personally demonstrates a leadership role in instruction | 10 | 12 | 11 | 22 |
| Superintendent delegates responsibility for instruction | 12 | 14 | 7 | 14 |
| Logistical problems detract from effectiveness | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| No reason provided | 19 | 22 | 8 | 16 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 5 | 6 | 4 | 8 |

### Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Assistant Superintendents in Curriculum and Instruction

The ratings for the role of assistant superintendent are very similar to those for the superintendent. For example, as with superintendents, relatively large numbers of teachers felt they were "unable to judge" the effectiveness of assistant superintendents in the provision of curriculum (31%) and instructional (29%) support to schools. However, those who felt they were in a position to provide evaluations were evenly split with respect to assistant superintendent effectiveness. For example, whereas 40 percent of teachers and principals rated assistant superintendents as either "not effective" or "of limited effectiveness" in the area of curriculum, an equal proportion rated them as "effective" or "very effective". Similarly, in the area of instruction, assistant superintendents were rated by 46 percent of respondents as being either "not effective" or "of limited effectiveness" whereas 36 percent provided "effective" or "very effective" ratings. Table 6 provides a summary of teacher and principal ratings of the effectiveness of assistant superintendents in meeting the needs of schools and teachers in the area of curriculum/program development.

Table 6. Principal/teacher Ratings of Assistant Superintendent Effectiveness in the Area of Curriculum

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 12 | 15 | 16 | 20 | 18 | 22 | 11 | 13 | 25 | 31 |
| Principals | 3 | 7 | 19 | 43 | 10 | 23 | 11 | 25 | 1 | 2 |
| Total | 15 | 12 | 35 | 28 | 28 | 22 | 22 | 18 | 26 | 21 |

When teachers and principals were asked to provide reasons for their ratings, a number of themes and categories emerged. As with superintendents, a large percentage of teachers (35%) indicated they either had no contact with or little evidence of assistant superintendent effectiveness in helping schools and teachers to meet their needs in the area of curriculum/program development.

> *I have not had much dealing with the Assistant Superintendents and very rarely see them. This is true for most other teachers in my school.* (T.M.H., Special Needs Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).

> *We currently have two [Assistant Superintendents] in this area. One is responsible more for building maintenance, bussing, staffing, etc., the second person is in a curriculum position. However, I have had little contact with this person in this regard.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

> *I do not know what the Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents do in terms of curriculum/program development for our school. I am not informed nor do I see evidence of what they do.* (K-3 resource room and T.M.H. teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, >67 km from board office).

> *With regards to curriculum/program development we have little personal contact with either Superintendents or their Assistants, as program coordinators tend to be our resource persons in this area.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

> *I rarely see these people. I usually see the Superintendent once a year. I don't see the Assistant Superintendents at all.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office).

Some principals had similar reactions to those of teachers although the proportion of principals who felt that there was little evidence of assistant superintendent effectiveness (24%) was lower than for teachers (36%). The following are representative comments from principals.

> *We see these [Assistant Superintendents] a bit more frequently [than Superintendents] but they have very little to do with course content and implementation.* (Principal, K-8 school, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

> *We rarely have any dealings with our Assistant Superintendents. They spend most of their time at central office or out of town.* (Principal, Primary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

> *Not able to - or not interested. Very important positions but not functioning.* (Junior High Principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

> *Is there one? [Assistant Superintendent] I believe one has helped with teacher evaluations.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

As was the case with superintendents, several teachers and principals felt that assistant superintendents were too preoccupied in other matters to be heavily involved in curricular issues.

> *Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents are viewed as administrators and therefore play only a very small role in curriculum/program development.* (Senior High Teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

> *Mainly concerned with hiring and dealing with school board issues rather than schools.* (Grade 1 Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).

> *These people are paper pushers. They do not have anything to do with the classroom.* (Junior High Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

> *Too many people in this position, I feel, have lost contact with what is actually happening in the classroom. Therefore, they have a tendency to support programs without having an appreciation for how they are to be implemented.* (Senior High Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

> *A great deal of time spent on managing the system, evaluating teachers and administrators, developing policy on different issues that confront the district.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

In contrast to the foregoing, twenty-four percent of teachers indicated that assistant superintendents do, in fact, exercise leadership in curriculum matters.

> *Operating on a monthly itinerary, the Assistant Superintendent visits the school once per month. Most meetings are with the principal who relays information through brief sessions and at staff meetings. One-to-one meetings are held re: evaluation, personal concerns, etc.* (Senior high

teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

*The Assistant Superintendent provides an excellent resource of knowledge and information concerning new programs as well as old programs. They also provide immediate feedback about print materials, videos, etc., ... when asked. They are always available for consultation and their professional advice concerning modifications, etc.... is easily and often given.* (Secondary teacher, <2 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

*One Assistant Superintendent seems fairly dedicated to his job and teachers can depend on him for resource material, etc. He is an intellectual. The other is a fisherman and a hunter first and conversations concerning such are more important than educational matters.* (Secondary teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

*Assistant Superintendent:*

- *team member of our school development program where the teachers identified the prime area of need.*
- *evaluates new teachers, visits teachers classrooms and can help match up teachers who have similar styles or approaches or beliefs and put them in touch with each other.* (Grade IV teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office).

Almost half of the principals surveyed (46%) indicated that assistant superintendents took some leadership role in curriculum/program development in their districts.

*The Assistant Superintendent conducts meetings involving coordinators and principals - involves the group in discussion of provincial documents. [The Assistant Superintendent] allocates in-service time and from time to time gets directly involved in program development and implementation.* (Principal, K-6 school, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

*The Assistant Superintendent is the work horse of our area - knows what is on the go and is up on just about everything affecting schools.* (Principal, Secondary School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

*In cooperation with the specific subject area coordinator, he adopts, implements and monitors programs throughout our District.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >66 km from board office).

*The Assistant Superintendents with whom I have dealings have been very effective in implementing new programs in our school system. They appear to be always searching for new and improved methods. They have kept abreast of modern trends in this area and cooperate with the school staff.* (Vice-Principal, Secondary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).

*The Assistant Superintendent is our liaison or communication officer. If we encounter problems or detect weaknesses or shortcomings in any program aspects the assistant prompts the available personnel and resources to that immediate aspect.* (Principal, K-6 school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from district office).

A number of principals indicated that although the assistant superintendent might have attempted to be effective in the area of curriculum, his/her efforts may not have realized the desired results.

*Superintendents and Assistants should be well informed on all curriculum developments and must work to facilitate professional development. The model now in practice (go to a one day lecture type of workshop at the request of the Board or Department of Education) has to be seen as the most ineffective method of in-service, both in passing on program developments and motivating teachers to change.* (Primary School Principal, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 11-25 km from board office).

*My experience has been that Assistant Superintendents have been instrumental in developing new* *programs in areas such as English. However, they have made little effort to help teachers to implement these new programs by means of workshops and professional days.* (Principal, All-Grade School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).

*At the school level there is very little contact with the assistant superintendent. If a new program is being introduced, the assistant superintendent will usually take part in the initial stages.* (Principal, K-VII school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*Generally, Assistant Superintendents are, like Superintendents, remote from schools. Both lack first-hand knowledge of students, teachers and local restraints, as well as lack of any recent teaching experience. Their efforts often result in problem creation, rather than problem solution.* (Principal, K-VI school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

In addition to the foregoing, two other minor categories emerged from the comments, one related to the fact that distances and numbers of teachers were too great to allow the assistant superintendent to be effective and the second that curriculum and program matters were delegated by superintendents and assistant superintendents to program coordinators. A complete breakdown of the numbers of teachers and principals responding in each category is provided in Table 7.

Table 7. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Assistant Superintendent Effectiveness in Curriculum

| | TEACHERS | | PRINCIPALS | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Little knowledge of and/or contact with Assistant Superintendent | 33 | 36 | 12 | 24 |
| Assistant Superintendent preoccupied with matters other than curriculum | 6 | 7 | 7 | 14 |
| Assistant Superintendent personally demonstrates a leadership role in curriculum | 22 | 25 | 23 | 46 |
| Assistant Superintendent delegates responsibility | 4 | 5 | 4 | 8 |
| Logistical problems detract from effectiveness | 2 | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| No reason provided | 17 | 20 | 5 | 10 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 8 | 9 | 2 | 4 |

Table 8 presents the ratings by principals and teachers of the effectiveness of assistant superintendents in meeting the needs of schools and teachers in the area of instruction.

Table 8. Principal/teacher Ratings of Assistant Superintendent Effectiveness in the Area of Instruction

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 17 | 22 | 15 | 20 | 14 | 18 | 9 | 12 | 22 | 29 |
| Principals | 8 | 19 | 15 | 35 | 11 | 26 | 9 | 21 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 25 | 21 | 30 | 25 | 25 | 21 | 18 | 15 | 22 | 18 |

Of the total group of teacher and principal respondents, 46 percent indicated that assistant superintendents were either "not effective" or had "limited effectiveness" in this area while 36 percent felt they were either "effective" or "very effective". When the explanations for those ratings were examined, it was found that 24 percent of the principals and 36 percent of the teachers indicated they had little or no evidence of assistant superintendent involvement in the area of instruction.

> *The time given to our school by Assistant Superintendents leaves a lot to be desired. We see them on an average of once or twice a year.* (Principal, Elementary School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *Both [Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents] may be effective in this area, however, from the point of view of the school, we can't see that much is being done by them in this area.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).
>
> *Almost no direct involvement with teachers in a realistic setting.* (Principal, Senior High School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *Assistant Superintendents have made little effort to help our staff in the area of instruction.* (Principal, All-Grade School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).
>
> *All the work is done at the central office and sometimes it's difficult to judge fairly. But at the school level, I haven't seen/noticed any means of helping teachers with the above mentioned [instruction].* (Grade 2 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate IV, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *Nobody knows his/her duties.* (Teacher, secondary school, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).
>
> *I have met this person only once and that was in the school corridor.* (Grade 1 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

In contrast to the foregoing, a number of principals (42%) and 26 percent of teachers indicated that assistant superintendents were involved in the area of instruction to varying degrees of effectiveness. Some pointed to their involvement in the evaluation of teachers.

> *Assistant Superintendents are more responsible [than Superintendents] for teacher self-evaluation and are therefore more effective in this specific area. These people are the ones who, when available, seem to take the time to sit and discuss on a professional level, teacher and teaching methodologies.* (Principal, Secondary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *These individuals are often in the classroom evaluating my instruction. They provide immediate feedback as to evaluating my own teaching, introducing new methodologies, etc... immediately following a classroom visitation. They also give sound professional advice concerning new approaches to teaching etc.* (Teacher, Secondary school, <2 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

*[The Assistant Superintendent] helps in evaluation of beginning teachers.* (Principal, Secondary School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

*Useful involvement through teacher evaluation.* (Junior High Principal, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

*Except in the case of evaluation of new teachers, the Assistant Superintendents spend little (to no) time in the classroom.* (Principal, Senior High School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

*My teacher evaluation process was nerve wrecking at the time but, through discussion and post conferences the assistant superintendent provided much support and improvement.* (Secondary teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office).

*The assistant superintendents have been involved in teacher evaluation, in presenting and explaining the current board evaluation package (upon recommendations of teachers and other personnel, I might add) and in the teacher evaluation process.* (Teacher, primary elementary grades, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, >76 km from board office).

Other principals pointed to a broader function.

*Our assistant is the workhorse in the area of instruction. He carries the major workload in regards to workshop conduction in most curriculum areas. He is also instrumental in regards to helping teachers set up and conduct the evaluation of their our teaching. An assistant is also an important player in creating the policy for pupil evaluation.* (Principal, K-6 school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office).

*The Assistant Superintendent is probably the most visible in this area of improvement of instruction. However, contact with schools is sporadic and lacks a sense of continuity.* (Principal, K-7 school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

*It seems to be the Assistant Superintendents who write most of the literature which pertains to this area [Instruction]. They have been responsible for most of the packages introduced re teacher and pupil evaluation.* (Vice-Principal, secondary school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).

*They are involved at the school level in aiding teachers in the area of instruction, offering advice and suggestions to teachers to improve the evaluation tools of the teacher and pupils. They assist the principal in long-term evaluation of new teachers.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).

*Assistant Superintendents:*

- *providing in-service*
- *evaluating teachers and administrators*
- *providing suggestions on teaching methodologies*
- *updating teachers on current research*
- *ensuring that programs are implemented properly* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

*I feel our assistant superintendent has brought to our attention more than ever the need for individualized instruction and programs to meet the needs of all students... Just great!* (Grade 1 & 2 teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).

*They set up in-services relative to improving instruction.* (Senior high teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

*The assistant [superintendent] responsible for my school is superb in this area. Having recently introduced a "School of Excellence" Program, her involvement is instrumental.* (Teacher, All-Grade School, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

As with the earlier discussion of superintendents, several other minor categories of comments emerged from teachers and principals. Some, for example, felt that assistant superintendents were involved in other "administrative" matters or that they delegated responsibility for instructional affairs to program coordinators. Table 9 presents a complete summary of teacher and principal comments.

Table 9. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Assistant Superintendent Effectiveness in Instruction

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Little knowledge of and/or no contact with Assistant Superintendent | 32 | 36 | 12 | 24 |
| Assistant Superintendent preoccupied with other matters | 9 | 10 | 8 | 16 |
| Assistant Superintendent provides leadership to varying degrees of effectiveness | 23 | 26 | 21 | 42 |
| Assistant Superintendent delegates responsibility for instruction | 7 | 8 | 2 | 4 |
| Logistical problems detract from effectiveness | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| No reason provided | 20 | 23 | 12 | 24 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 5 | 6 | 2 | 4 |

Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Program Coordinators in Curriculum and Instruction

In contrast to ratings for superintendents and assistant superintendents, practically all teachers and principals felt they were in a position to judge the effectiveness of program coordinators in the area of curriculum. Only 2 percent felt they were "unable to judge".

A second conclusion, which is somewhat surprising given the primary focus of program coordinators on curriculum/program development, was that 41 percent of principals and teachers felt coordinators were either "not effective" or of "limited effectiveness" in the area of curriculum. Table 10 presents the complete set of ratings provided by teachers and principals.

Table 10. Principal/teacher Ratings of Program Coordinator Effectiveness in the Area of Curriculum

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 5 | 6 | 27 | 34 | 29 | 36 | 17 | 21 | 2 | 3 |
| Principals | 3 | 7 | 15 | 34 | 13 | 30 | 13 | 30 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 8 | 7 | 42 | 34 | 42 | 34 | 30 | 24 | 2 | 2 |

A detailed examination of the comments provided by teachers and principals suggests a slightly different perspective from that provided in Table 10. Approximately 30 percent of the teachers and 40 percent of principals felt that program coordinators had been helpful to them in the area of curriculum. The following are sample comments:

> *Program coordinators are helpful. It is possible to call them regarding programs. They hold workshops, etc., to aid teachers in the area of curriculum/program development.* (Grade 1 and 2 teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).
>
> *The program coordinator is my contact person at the board. They provide an opportunity for teacher input and are a good source of information and support in implementing curriculum changes, etc.* (Senior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office).
>
> *On several occasions, I have had several dealings with program coordinators (Especially in Social Studies and English) and at all times I have found them to be helpful and concerned. These two people have handled all my curriculum concerns.* (Senior High teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *They are the people talking to the teachers daily. Teachers are reporting concerns about their subject areas, e.g., deficiencies in textbooks, additions of new novels - coordinators have it in their power to recommend many changes in curriculum.* (Junior High Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *These are the grass roots people of program development and curriculum instruction. These have often visited our school for personal consultation. As well, they often correspond about new approaches, methodologies, etc.... that relate to several subject areas. They also are there when advice is needed on program implementation, etc.* (Secondary Teacher, <2 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).
>
> *I find our program coordinators very good at the primary level. They are usually accessible and provide good workshops.* (Grade 3 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office).
>
> *My Assistant Superintendent is also my coordinator. He goes out of his way to be of assistance, initiating meetings of teachers involved in our board in my subject, having guest speakers, showing us new material or material borrowed from other boards in the province, and is a real "listening ear" for problems particular to our subject. I feel very fortunate to have such a coordinator.* (Primary/Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).
>
> *More effective than others [Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents] because of the frequency of their visits to the school and availability to discuss new programs, curricular documents, etc. These are the people who are more directly involved with curriculum/program development at the school level.* (Principal, Secondary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *These personnel go out of their way for our school, even though we are in excess of 300 miles from central office. Being so far removed makes these people very essential to us and their services are very effective.* (Principal, All-Grade school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *These are the individuals who work closely with school staffs. I have found them to be very effective in my subject area. Our coordinators work in the schools with teachers and students. Some of these are as well known by the students as they are by the staff. Again, I have found them very useful/helpful when implementing new programs and/or modifying existing programs.* (Principal, Secondary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *All program coordinators work closely with the schools. The development of our elective programs was done in close conjunction with the coordinators. They have also been very supportive in many other areas - e.g., the math coordinator assisted in the installation of*

> *computers both in the class and general office. Our coordinators promote the piloting of new programs.* (Principal, Junior High School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

Principals and teachers pointed to the fact that some coordinators are more effective than others suggesting that the effectiveness of the role is dependent upon the role encumbent.

> *Depends on the individual. It would be unfair to say that none have any effect but most work from a distance with teachers/department heads. Very little time is spent in classrooms with teachers.* (Principal, Senior High, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *Some program coordinators are more effective than others. It appears that the amount of effectiveness of a coordinator decreases with the number of years spent in that capacity. It also appears that math and science coordinators are more effective than coordinators in other disciplines.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *Some coordinators tend to be paper pushers rather than working directly with teachers. However, some coordinators have provided exceptional concern and help for teachers.* (Principal, K-6 school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, >75 km from board office).
>
> *Program coordinators know their subject areas. A lot of the effectiveness has to do with the personal strengths of the coordinator.* (Senior High Teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VII, < km from board office).
>
> *"Most coordinators are effective. One coordinator actually comes into the classroom to help develop programs. However, we have another coordinator who isn't motivated.* (Principal, K-9 school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *This [effectiveness] depends on which program coordinator you are referring to at that moment. Some are trying very hard to do a good job and others couldn't care less. When their in-service days were out this past year, I would like to know what they did everyday to help the classroom teacher.* (Kindergarten Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *This varies - some are excellent, very involved in schools. Others see their role more along the lines of a provincial level in developing policies and programs.* (Secondary Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *My special needs coordinator has been doing a much better job than most and I am pleased with the amount of professional assistance in carrying out the special needs policy.* (Special needs teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).

Others were less positive. For example, some teachers and principals felt that the present system of in-service employed by coordinators was ineffective.

> *New programs often receive insufficient in-service or are in-serviced too long after the program has been introduced into the schools. Also materials necessary for the proper use of the programs are sometimes not made available in schools.* (Grade 7 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *Workshops are generally useless as in most cases the teachers tend to forget material presented in this form because there is no follow-up afterward by the coordinators. Unless coordinators spend the greater percentage of their time working to assist teachers in their individual classrooms, it would be just as well to phase out these positions.* (Grade IV teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate IV, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *They are responsible for in-service at the board in which I am employed. However, I rarely see them in the schools or rarely hear from them. Occasionally I may receive a memo and often times there are in-service sessions for new programs which by and large have been a waste of time. I'd prefer to have the day's leave for my personal choice most of the time.* (Grade 6 & 7

teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

*During the past years I have only had one in-service and not much communication with personnel from broad office.* (Primary and Elementary Teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).

*Workshops and in-service are generally not effective. [Program Coordinators] are not involved enough with teachers.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office).

*They conduct in-service (1 day sessions) however, I would like to see follow-up activities at the classroom level. I would like to see principals with more time to lead or become instructional leaders. We are merely plant managers. However, we are on the scene and better able to initiate change if we were "freed up".* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

In addition to the foregoing 20 percent of teachers and 32 percent of principals responding made negative comments regarding the role of the coordinator in curriculum.

*My program coordinator makes a trip to my school twice a year and rarely has new ideas, programs, etc. He hands out written materials now and then.* (Primary, Resource Room/TMH Teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

*In most cases these people are no more qualified than the teacher. One must realize that today teachers have six or seven years of university training and probably have more expertise than their Supervisors.* (Junior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

*As far as I am aware, the hundreds of thousands of dollars spent on local coordinators expense accounts and salaries do not benefit students.* (Senior High teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

*We very rarely see them. We are not permitted any workshops. I have been a teacher for 15 years, I've seen a coordinator approximately 3 times (that's in our work site) in those years. What do they do?* (Junior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

*I personally have reservations about the role of individuals in these positions. To a large extent they are underutilized - serve no purpose other than to use allocations better used in classrooms. Curriculum/programs are for the most part outlined by the Department. Who needs a $50,000+ interpreter.* (Senior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 210 km from board office).

*I am tired and angry with over-paid, underworked so-called educators. Coordinators with our board have done more to hinder the educational process than they have done to help. A high school teacher who is often harried with marking and preparation and disturbed about discipline problems has his day completely ruined when he sees these idiots lying around the staff room.* (Secondary teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

*I feel that those serving in this capacity would be more effective if:*

1. *They were given greater authority on matters concerning curriculum.*
2. *They were delegated to work much more closely with teachers in the schools under their jurisdiction.* (Senior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*As time goes on, these people have become less visible at the school level. Generally, at the school level they are not perceived as being very effective.* (Principal, Elementary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*They all have their little speciality - yet learning and programs are not always like that. I sometimes feel these are too many and too specialized for primary/elementary grades. Give me a good Vice-Principal, trained in curriculum and make it his/her primary responsibility in the school and we would have more efficiency and effectiveness.* (Principal, Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

Several teachers noted a lack of education or experience in the areas for which coordinators had responsibility.

> *Many of the program coordinators have not had actual experience in primary classroom teaching. Services would probably be more effective if they had more personal classroom experience.* (Grade 1 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office).
>
> *In certain areas of the curriculum, knowledge of the coordinators is limited. For example, a science coordinator may not be trained in all disciplines he is responsible for.* (Senior High teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).
>
> *Most [Program Coordinators] have little teaching experience in their areas of responsibility, and no teaching at all in the past decade or longer.* (Principal, Elementary school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

A final category emerging from the comments related to the fact that coordinators were too far removed physically, or were deployed to work with such large numbers of teachers that their effectiveness was affected adversely. For example, one teacher explained a "limited effectiveness" rating as follows:

> *Restrictions caused by office duties, plus the number of schools, plus the distance of the Boards boundaries.* (Grade 6 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

The comment of another teacher reflected ambivalence on this point:

> *Coordinators often are less effective because they can only spend a limited time in each school in order to provide adequate treatment to planned curriculum developments. From another perspective, teachers can implement quite well most desired curriculum strategies after sufficient in-service training.* (Junior High Teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

Several principals expressed similar sentiments:

> *I think program coordinators could be more effective if they did not have such a large district to serve.* (Principal, Elementary School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from district office).
>
> *I believe the distance and isolation of this school hinders the efforts of coordinators.* (Principal, All-Grade School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >75 km from board office).

Table 11 presents a summary of the frequencies and percentages of the categories of comments emanating from the responses of principals and teachers.

When teachers and principals were asked to assess the effectiveness of program coordinators in meeting the needs of schools and teachers in the area of instruction, their ratings were very similar to those for coordinators in the area of curriculum. As indicated in Table 12, of the principals and teachers responding, 45 percent rated program coordinators as being either "not effective" or of "limited effectiveness". Fifty-four percent rated program coordinators as either "effective" or "very effective".

The comments from teachers and principals with respect to program coordinator roles in instruction were very similar to those presented in the previous section dealing with curriculum. For example, one group felt that the effectiveness of the coordinator in the area of instruction was dependent upon the individual, some coordinators being more effective than others.

> *Again, there are program coordinators who are trying their best in this regard, and others who are doing nothing. I attended a workshop the other day in which I was particularly impressed with what was presented. However, there were two coordinators there and I feel justified in saying the work was done by one.* (Kindergarten Teacher, 11-20 years, Certificate V, <10 km from board office.)
>
> *The Primary [Coordinator] is effective in Math and Language Arts but little or no contact with coordinators in other areas of the school program.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)

Table 11. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Program Coordinator Effectiveness in Curriculum

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Coordinators helpful to teachers | 26 | 30 | 20 | 40 |
| Coordinators provide workshops but little follow-up or other assistance | 11 | 13 | 3 | 6 |
| Generally negative comments | 18 | 20 | 16 | 32 |
| Some coordinators are effective, others ineffective | 8 | 9 | 8 | 16 |
| Logistical problems detract from effectiveness | 6 | 7 | 6 | 12 |
| No reason provided | 13 | 15 | 4 | 8 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 10 | 11 | 1 | 2 |

Table 12. Principal/teacher Ratings of Program Coordinator Effectiveness in the Area of Instruction

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 9 | 11 | 26 | 33 | 25 | 32 | 17 | 21 | 2 | 3 |
| Principals | 4 | 9 | 15 | 35 | 14 | 33 | 10 | 23 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 13 | 11 | 41 | 34 | 39 | 32 | 27 | 22 | 2 | 2 |

> Again, it varies depending on the individual. Some are extremely effective, others are like "dead wood." (Primary/Elementary School Principal, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, >76 km from board office.)
>
> *With the exception of our primary coordinator, I feel that our coordinators in general do little to meet our needs in instruction and nothing in the area of student evaluation. Evaluation seems to be very general and just about anything is exceptable. I know this sounds rather negative but our teachers are very concerned about the direction in which we seem to be going in the education of our children.* (Grade Two teacher, 11-20 years, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)
>
> *Some program coordinators are far more accessible than others for the teachers. Also, some are more visible in schools than others. They must be given time and space to work with teachers as this is where their expertise lies.* (Junior High Teacher, 11-20 years, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)
>
> *Some I find much better than others. At my board, for example, the Math and French coordinators I find to be fantastic; they are an unlimited source of alternative methods, supportive*

> *materials, etc. .On the other hand, I find the Language and Social Studies coordinators to be much less helpful.* (Grade Seven Teacher, >20 years, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office.)

Approximately one-third of teachers and principals made comments suggesting that coordinators efforts were viewed in a positive light. Some pointed to effective workshops while others noted the provision of support materials for their teaching. Perhaps most noticeable, though, was the emphasis on having coordinators work directly with individual teachers to help them improve their instruction.

> *These people provide consultation and feedback regarding instruction, etc... for they are often in the classroom doing visitation. They also help set goals and guidelines for effective teaching in conjunction with curriculum outlines, etc... Most of this is done by personal consultation as well as through written correspondence.* (Secondary Teacher, <two years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office.)

> *This [instruction] is an area that the program coordinators have more impact in our board. They are constantly in the schools working with teachers.* (Primary/Elementary Teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office.)

> *Program coordinators are very helpful - spend time in schools - find any materials applicable. Eager to assist.* (Grade Eight Teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, 11-25 km from board office.)

> *The coordinators make every effort to attend the school regularly, send up to date information and keep consistently in touch.* (Secondary Teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office.)

> *There has been some improvement in our district this year. Each program coordinator is assigned to two/three schools and they spend time there on a regular basis. However, the system is not perfect since a coordinator's expertise may not be as accessible to other schools.* (Principal, Junior High School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office.)

> *Our primary coordinator has played an active role in meeting the needs of our staff in the area of instruction. She now has to spread herself more thinly as a result of consolidation and her effectiveness has diminished.* (Principal, Primary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)

> *Our program coordinators ensure that the goals and objectives of particular curricula are adhered to. Teachers are instructed that textbooks are guides only. The objectives as set forth in the curriculum guides must be met rather than contents of various curriculum materials. Our coordinators are classroom instructors and provide guidance and direction for the introduction of new lessons as well as evaluation techniques for said material.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office.)

In contrast to the foregoing a large percentage of teachers and principals (35% of teachers and 38% of principals) tended to be generally negative about the effectiveness of program coordinators in the area of instruction. Most striking of the reasons given was that program coordinators were not perceived as being involved with teachers at the school level.

> *Coordinators do attempt to present new ideas through inservice programs but they do not make themselves very visible in the schools to seek from teachers any concerns they might have.* (Elementary Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office.)

> *I find this position to be totally ineffective as a group. But on an individual basis some coordinators provide some direction in new methodologies but very little in the way of evaluation for either student or teacher. This is definitely a weakness in the present structure.* (Grade Six/Seven Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)

> *Program coordinators have also made little effort to help our staff in the area of instruction. We have had few workshops or professional development days and most of our dealings with*

*coordinators have been generally unproductive.* (Principal, All-Grade School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office.)

*Almost no direct involvement with teachers in the teaching learning situation. Some involvement with the evaluation of teachers but this is a very artificial situation.* (Principal, Secondary School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office.)

*The program coordinator has evaluated my teaching and methods of evaluation but it has been very limited - twice in a four year period. With regards to new teaching methods I usually seek help from other teachers or through clinics.* (Primary/Elementary Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)

*Program coordinators are rarely seen, thus have very little to do with instruction.* (Senior High School Teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, 11-25 km from board office.)

*They play a minor role in introducing new teaching methodologies and improving pupil evaluation. This is done at inservice sessions. However, there has been a lack of meaningful follow-up.* (Primary/Elementary Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, >76 km from board office.)

*Program coordinators can give a fair evaluation of teacher and students work, but should spend more time helping teachers within classroom situations - but because of logistics, numbers of schools to supervise, cannot do this regularly.* (Primary Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office.)

*Program coordinators do not concentrate on classroom visitations or attempt to offer any teaching strategies. Teachers are basically left on their own.* (Secondary Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, >75 km from board office.)

*Program coordinators only provide brief periods of inservice. Inservice uses mostly an ineffective model-basically lecture, although some have tried to have some group work (benefit is doubtful). Limited follow-up. Limited impact on changing traditional teaching methods.* (Principal, Primary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 11-25 km from board office.)

*The mode of inservice delivery is such that quite often all teachers are treated in the same manner regardless of their own ability to deal with innovations or their prior classroom experiences.* (Senior High School Principal, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office.)

*All is needed is a periodic facilitator to bring teachers together to exchange ideas. We do not need persons employed year around with each board to do this. Probably most under utilized species [Program Coordinators] in the educational system.* (Senior High School Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office.)

Table 13 provides a summary of the major categories distilled from those comments provided by principals and teachers as explanations for their ratings of the effectiveness of program coordinators in the area of instruction.

Table 13. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Program Coordinator Effectiveness in Instruction

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Program coordinators are helpful to teachers | 25 | 29 | 17 | 34 |
| Some coordinators are effective, others ineffective | 8 | 9 | 6 | 12 |
| Generally negative comments | 31 | 35 | 19 | 38 |
| No comment | 14 | 16 | 8 | 16 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 15 | 17 | 6 | 12 |

Principal/Teacher Assessments of the Effectiveness of Specialists in Curriculum and Instruction

At the present time in the province, a number of individuals are employed at school district offices to provide specialists services to teachers and pupils. Included among the listings in the schools directory for the province are the following:

Educational Psychologist
Speech/Language Pathologist
Teacher for Visually Impaired
Teacher for Hearing Impaired
Teacher for Gifted Programs
Developmental Children/Cerebral Palsy

Teachers and principals were asked to rate the effectiveness of specialists in the area of curriculum/program development. Table 14 presents a composite picture of these ratings.

Table 14. Principal/teacher Ratings of Specialist Effectiveness in the Area of Curriculum

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 11 | 13 | 23 | 28 | 18 | 22 | 5 | 6 | 26 | 31 |
| Principals | 6 | 14 | 15 | 34 | 9 | 21 | 9 | 21 | 5 | 11 |
| Total | 17 | 13 | 38 | 30 | 27 | 21 | 14 | 11 | 31 | 24 |

The comments attending those ratings are easily categorized. Although approximately one quarter of all teachers and one fifth of all principals responding made no comment at all with respect to specialists, almost one third of each group indicated that there were either too few specialists, or that their services were spread too thinly. The following are representative teacher comments.

*In our board, the specialists are spread too thin between different schools and even between school boards. This lack of time has to cut down on their effectiveness.* (Primary and Elementary teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).

*Specialists do as good a job as they are capable of doing. However, their effectiveness is limited because they have so many schools to cover. I indeed believe that specialists are more valued and needed than most coordinators.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*The caseload of these people is generally far too heavy. How can they possibly be effective when they are spread over as many as six schools.* (Senior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*In this area, the few that are there are responsible for far too many schools to be effective. I want two of my children referred for speech and have been told I (or they) have to wait until September, 1991.* (Kindergarten teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).

*These people are very overworked and as a result [it is] very difficult to meet with them concerning important needs.* (Grade 1 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).

*As our school is far from major centres where specialists are located, we do not have enough access to them. (It would be helpful if specialists were appointed geographically, regardless of board so that everyone could benefit.)* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, > 76 km from board office).

Principals had similar comments:

*We see them too infrequently. They are spread out too thin. Their services are vital and they do fine work but the demand on their time is simply too great to do justice to the needs. The limited effectiveness is due to workload as opposed to ability.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

*The various specialists at Central Office provide a much needed service in our schools. Their caseloads, however, are so great that their effectiveness is limited.* (Principal, Primary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

*The problem here is accessability and the impossible task of getting around to address all needs. I have had some great help, however, from our educational psychologist.* (Principal, Junior High, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

*I believe the distance and isolation of this school hinders the efforts of coordinators and specialists. More specialists are required if remote areas such as this are to be served effectively.* (Principal, All-Grade School, > 10 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, > 76 km from board office).

In those cases where principals and teachers had been provided services by specialists, their assessments were quite positive.

*I have had to deal with the Educational Psychologist this year and he has been tremendous. Such a person is needed desperately in our area and particularly in our school.* (Grade 1 teacher, > 20 years experience, Certificate VI, > 76 km from board office).

*Working with a Speech Therapist only, in connection with one student, I have found her position to be uplifting and enlightening. She has wide latitude to implement and evaluate new programs and curriculum.* (Secondary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, > 76 km from board office).

*Specialists spend a lot of time working in schools; can see progress in certain programs, can see new teams being developed.* (Grade 8 teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, 11-25 km from board office).

*The teacher for visually impaired and educational psychologists have been very active within this particular school and have provided invaluable services to students within this school system.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

*The specialists have given great assistance in the areas of Special Education on resource programs. They are readily available for testing and evaluating pupils needs.* (Principal, Junior High, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).

*I find them especially helpful and cooperative in adjusting programs to the special needs of a particular child.* (Secondary Principal, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

Table 15 provides a summary of the categories of comments emanating from those provided by principals and teachers as they provided explanations for their ratings of the effectiveness of specialists in the area of curriculum.

When principals and teachers were asked to rate the effectiveness of specialists in the area of instruction, their ratings, as well as comments, were quite similar to those provided in the previous section dealing with curriculum. Nevertheless, those data are provided here for the sake of completeness. Table 16 presents the ratings of teachers and principals.

Table 15. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Specialist Effectiveness in Curriculum

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Logistical problems detract from effectiveness - large distances/number of schools/students | 24 | 27 | 14 | 28 |
| Positive comments regarding helpfulness of specialists | 9 | 10 | 15 | 30 |
| No comment | 23 | 26 | 10 | 20 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 17 | 19 | 8 | 10 |
| Little or no contact with specialists | 18 | 20 | 5 | 10 |
| Specialists not helpful when available | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |

Table 16. Principal/teacher Ratings of Specialist Effectiveness in the Area of Instruction

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 11 | 14 | 13 | 17 | 17 | 22 | 4 | 5 | 32 | 42 |
| Principals | 13 | 33 | 9 | 23 | 7 | 18 | 7 | 18 | 4 | 10 |
| Total | 24 | 21 | 22 | 19 | 24 | 21 | 11 | 9 | 36 | 31 |

As indicated above, a large percentage of teachers (42%) indicated they were unable to judge the effectiveness of specialists in the area of instruction. This is undoubtedly due to the fact that most teachers had little contact with specialists either because they were unavailable to them or their assistance had not been required. As in the areas of curriculum, many teachers and principals indicated that even when specialists were available, they were so few that their heavy caseloads and/or geography limited their effectiveness.

> *These people provide some assistance in the testing of children to see just where problems stem from. Their services are sometimes very difficult to obtain and in some cases they are not available at all.* (Special Education teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *As these people are overburdened, it takes a long time for them to be able to help you. Once a referral is made, it can take as long as 3 months before your child is seen. However, I find on the whole these people are trying to cope with a heavy caseload.* (Kindergarten teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *Specialists are as effective as their job permits. Covering a wide area does not allow them the time to give to each individual case that requires so much attention and follow-up.* (Senior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *These people usually have such a large area to cover geographically and numerically, that it is not uncommon for long periods of time to have gone by without seeing any of these specialists.* (Principal, Elementary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *While most specialists are very well trained in their fields, they simply do not have the time to perform their jobs effectively.* (Primary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *Because of area to be covered, very few children can be referred and the time it takes to evaluate and report findings is long.* (Primary Special Education Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *They are of great use when they are here but there's a long waiting list. In most cases it's months before seeing the specialist about a pupil referral.* (Principal, K-8 school, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *From my experience, their workload is too heavy to provide adequate assistance in the area, i.e., one psychologist for all schools on the Baie Verte Peninsula!* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).
>
> *Again, as noted, the huge area and vast numbers that these people are involved with make for very limited effectiveness.* (Principal, Elementary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *Time and numbers cause very limited effectiveness.* (Principal, K-9 School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *Specialists are too few to meet the needs we see in schools today. Specialists need to be in schools - not in Central Office! Or they could be used in training classroom teachers. For example, at present if a student exhibits disruptive behavior, the specialist (counsellor or therapist) may isolate child for a short time and meet periodically to modify the unacceptable behavior. Often the classroom teacher is only helped by a short "break" from the child's disruptive presence. Then the same specialist works with similar cases in other schools, throughout the district. A better plan would be to have that specialist work with the teacher (even groups of teachers if similar needs are identified in 2 or more classrooms) for the purposes of explaining the child's problems and suggesting strategies to cope with, manage or modify the behavior. This identified group [of teachers] can continue to receive professional development throughout the year with follow-up in the classroom; and can provide support for each other. (The old adage "Give a man a fish.... etc. applies here!) This model can be used in many areas and over the years, as a teacher receives professional development to meet the needs of an exceptional student(s), he or she will soon be more informed - information of a practical nature - not just theory or labels learned. Presently, we are assessing and labelling children, sending*

*them out for short time to get special help. This is not the answer!* (Principal, Elementary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office.)

As Table 17 suggests only three teachers and two principals reflected a negative evaluation of the in-school work of specialists. Many who had received help from specialists were generally positive:

*The Educational Psychologist has been a god-send for me this year, both in evaluating me and a child in my class. There have been tremendous results.* (Grade 1 teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, >75 km from board office).

*The Speech Therapist comes to the school on a regular basis and works with a number of children. She has spoken to me regarding particular students with suggestions of activities to use with a particular child.* (Grade 2 teacher, 3-10 years teaching experience, Certificate V, >75 km from board office).

*Specialists are effective in meeting the needs in the area of instruction. They help in teacher and pupil evaluation. They are usually in the school so can be of great assistance.* (Grade 1 teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*Specialists*

- *will speak at school staff meetings to inform us about how to deal with special needs children*
- *provide resources (videos, articles, etc.) for teacher use.* (Grade IV teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate IV, < 10 km from board office).

*I have had limited dealings with specialists. I did find the assistance of an itinerant teacher for the hearing impaired to be very valuable. She helped me deal with the introduction of new equipment into the classroom.* (Secondary school principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).

*The fact that these people spend time in the school allows them to be somewhat effective.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

*Provide a lot of help in the areas of modification, strategies for handling difficult students.* (Principal, Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 11-25 km from board office).

*We have drawn on the expertise of these individuals and have found them extremely important in program development (especially for students with I.E.P.'s).* (Principal, Elementary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, >75 km from board office).

Table 17 presents a complete summary of the comments of principals and teachers with respect to the effectiveness of specialists in the provision of instructional support services.

Table 17. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Specialist Effectiveness in Instruction

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Logistical problems detract from effectiveness - large distances/number of schools/pupils | 11 | 13 | 10 | 20 |
| Positive comments regarding helpfulness of specialists | 12 | 14 | 8 | 16 |
| No comment | 32 | 36 | 14 | 28 |
| Reasons provided do not contribute to an understanding of rating | 15 | 17 | 11 | 22 |
| Little or no contact with specialists | 17 | 19 | 12 | 24 |
| Specialists not helpful when available | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 |

### Type and Value of other Professional Services Provided by District Office Personnel

The foregoing sections of this report have dealt with principal and teacher assessments of the roles of district office personnel in the areas of curriculum and instruction. It was deemed desirable, in addition, to provide those respondents the opportunity to comment on the types and value of any other professional services provided to them by school district office staff. Table 18 presents the categories and frequencies of comments provided in response to this open-ended question.

Table 18. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Other Services Provided by District Office Personnel

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| No other services of any value provided | 30 | 33 | 16 | 32 |
| Professional development | 35 | 40 | 19 | 38 |
| Research | 4 | 5 | 5 | 10 |
| Administrative services, e.g., personnel policy, student services policy, contracts, etc. | 4 | 5 | 4 | 8 |
| Other: e.g., district Audio-Visual Materials Centre | 6 | 7 | 2 | 4 |
| Comment not helpful | 10 | 11 | 6 | 12 |
| No comment | 14 | 16 | 6 | 12 |

As indicated in Table 18, 32 percent of principals and 33 percent of teachers suggested that their school district offices did not provide professional services to their school staffs other than those directly related to curriculum and instruction.

> *I feel that there is very little provided to our teaching staff by central office especially in areas not related to curriculum and instruction. Central office personnel should be more aware of what's going on in the school environment and then work for the betterment of each school.*

> (Principal, All-grade school, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office.)
>
> *We don't see any services re personal/professional development, conducting research, etc. For the most part coordinators come over once or twice a year, check on how the program is going and leave. Some show more interest and teach a lesson, bring over new materials, etc., but for the most part that is their school involvement in total.* (Principal, K-8 school, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).
>
> *I feel that very little is done for the staff of my school by central office staff. Principals have more contact with central office than do teachers, and even this is being diminished. I feel that central office staff should spend less time travelling and sitting in the board office, and more time in schools. If they are to support school staffs they must have first hand experience and at least be able to call teachers by name.* (Principal, Primary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km to board office).
>
> *Central Office only appears to be interested when there is a problem to be dealt with, unless you encourage their interest in all matters.* (Principal, Secondary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *Outside of a one-day workshop this year, there are no professional services for teachers under this board. Board personnel tend to keep themselves remote from teachers and classrooms. Not a single member of the board office staff has come near my classroom in twelve years.* (Junior High Teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).
>
> *Unaware of any [services] other than teacher evaluation and appearances at assemblies. The ordinary classroom teacher does not have much to do with central office.* (Junior High teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).
>
> *Non-existent. (Put the running of the school back into the hands of the principal and vice-principal).* (Secondary teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *In my 22 years with this board we have had two days devoted to professional development. Any other services have been non-existent.* (Secondary teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *Professional services provided by central office personnel other than those related to curriculum and instruction were virtually non-existent. Their role was confined to workshops and information regarding courses in the curriculum. There was no dissemination of information directly related to enhancing the teacher's personal or professional development.* (Senior High teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

On the other hand many principals (38%) and teachers (40%) felt that school district office personnel had been instrumental in providing professional development services in their jurisdictions although some were ambivalent about the value and extent of those efforts.

> *The board does provide retreat days, also bursaries are available for some out of province workshops.* (Principal, K-6 school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *District office encourages teachers and administrators to become involved with upgrading in their particular field or subject area. They provide opportunity and professional development by granting educational leaves, to a point. They encourage schools to initiate professional development at school level and provide resources to carry out these sessions.* (Principal, Junior High, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *The district has just introduced the opportunity for teacher exchanges within the district, whereby a teacher in one part of the district might change teaching positions with another. The employee assistance program has been promoted throughout the district. Teachers are encouraged to apply*

*for educational leave.* (Principal, K-7 School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*Our staff members are encouraged and permitted to attend any workshops and meetings that may in any way help in P.D. Some of these are set up by the central office, e.g., at least one day per year to re-focus our role as a teacher and more so as a Catholic teacher. This is well received by a majority. Also, being a native school we are provided P.D. time to explore new methods and ideas involving native education.* (Principal, All-Grade School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

*This year our school board did make a start towards some input regarding personal development - one day each for teachers and administrators. I see a great need for this and hope it continues.* (Principal, Grade 4-9 school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*We have at times had professional development activities but it has not been on a regular sustained basis.* (Principal, Grade 4-9 school, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*Over a period of years there have been many professional development workshops. In my opinion, about 10% of these have contributed to my professional growth. The other 90% have consisted of highly reimbursed experts flown in from "up along" or the "states" who show us overhead transparencies which we can pick up from any professional magazine.* (Principal, Secondary School, >20 years experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

*During the year we generally have one day for personal development. This day is normally conducted by a coordinator and generally is one of reflection and meditation. Professional development days are usually, on topics such as evaluation, both student and teacher. I think we all need time to look at ourselves and our work and reevaluate our lives. For me, I get rejuvenated with these seminars.* (Secondary teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).

*I can think only of one. such service that was provided. We had a STRESS AWARENESS DAY. This was very enjoyable.* (Grade 2 teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

*Central Office personnel have provided personal and professional development. We have had valuable workshops to build up the self-esteem of teachers, to discuss teacher burn-out and stress, child protection policy on sexual abuse and many other such useful topics of great importance to the teacher in today's society.* (Grade 1 teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

*District committees always involve teaching personnel and are set up for anything that will affect classrooms directly, e.g., library policy, special education policy, etc. Teachers avail of a district office "library" of professional materials. Many of the programme coordinators have experience teaching at MUN and have experience with and knowledge of new equipment and resources that can be used in the district - networking between schools is encouraged.* (Grade IV teacher, 3-10 years teaching experience, Certificate IV, < 10 km from board office).

*One service which I was made aware of by one of the Central Office personnel, and which I appreciated and took advantage of, was an intense course in French. I looked on it as both personal and professional development. The only disadvantage of participating in this course was the travelling distance.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

*Board personnel, especially at Assistant Superintendent level has/continues to be very instrumental in introducing new/relevant innovations at a teaching staff level. Most recent is "Schools for Excellence." The same is also true for innovations and developments in areas of classroom management, teacher evaluation, etc.* (Secondary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

In addition to the foregoing, 10 percent of the principals and five percent of teachers indicated that district office staff were engaged in research helpful to them and their school, while four percent of principals and seven percent of teachers noted the presence of a district Audio-Visual Centre. As well, eight percent of principals and five percent of teachers cited administrative decision-making in such areas as personnel and student services policies, and employment contracts as ways in which school district office staff had been helpful to them.

## Additional Needs/Concerns Identified by Principals and Teachers

In the conceptualization of this study it was thought necessary to provide teachers and principals the opportunity to discuss needs they had identified in their schools and classrooms which they felt should be, but were not presently, addressed by school district personnel. A wide-ranging list of items emerged from the answers to this question. Table 19 provides a categorization of comments forthcoming from teachers and principals.

Table 19. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Other Needs not Being Aggressed by School District Offices

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Services to pupils (e.g., to deal with guidance, truancy, special needs, giftedness, etc.) | 19 | 22 | 7 | 14 |
| More and better in-service (help for teachers in schools, networking, etc.) | 16 | 18 | 23 | 46 |
| Lack of equipment/resources | 14 | 16 | 2 | 4 |
| Improvements to/maintenance of physical plant | 9 | 10 | 4 | 8 |
| Reduction of class size | 14 | 16 | 0 | 0 |
| Modification/changes to curriculum | 10 | 11 | 1 | 2 |
| No additional needs identified | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 |
| No comment | 21 | 24 | 12 | 24 |
| Comment not helpful | 3 | 4 | 4 | 8 |

The largest category of teacher comments relates to the need for additional services to be provided to pupils. Some of those comments refer to the difficulties associated with the practice of mainstreaming:

> *I feel that in my school this year several teachers on staff have had to deal with problem children for whom our school setting is not the "right" place for the children to be. They have many mental disorders which a classroom teacher of over 30 children cannot always be aware of or deal with. This is certainly frustrating for the teacher and the other children in the classroom. Apparently there are policies which must be followed when dealing with these children, but I feel that the Department of Education and school board personnel must look closely at the problem and monitor the results of having those children in regular classes. The average child should not be forgotten as we try to make things fair for children with social/mental disorders. There must*

> *be some recourse when they are impeding other children's education.* (Junior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *Another new concept which is being phased in is the integration of the handicapped in regular classrooms. I believe in this but you can't give a teacher those children without support personnel and training in the area. I feel there's too much expected of teachers, which leads to a lot of stress for a conscientious teacher. Again, I feel the personnel for the board are not always familiar with the handicapped children and teacher units are not always allotted properly.* (Grade 2 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *Largest task is to find programs which are geared to the delayed learning child. It is very frustrating to everyone especially the child when he must follow a regular program. There are few chances for success if we are not able to meet the child at his level.* (Grade 6 teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).
>
> *I feel teachers need more guidance from specialists in setting up individual programs for students who have been tested and found to have specific learning problems. I would like more direction in dealing with these students.* (Senior High teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office).

Some principals concurred with this point of view:

> *An area that is not being addressed by central office personnel is that of special needs students. Our staff have requested help in dealing with these students but the response of the central board staff has been very inadequate.* (Principal, All-Grade School, <20 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).
>
> *We need personnel immediately available to deal with individual teachers...on implementing programs for special needs children.* (Principal, Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).
>
> *[We need] School level work with teachers dealing with students with learning disabilities.* (Principal, Senior High School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office).

In a similar vein, several teachers noted the need for programs for exceptional students at the "gifted" end of the scale:

> *The gifted students in our schools are not given the attention and curriculum required. In most cases these students "drift with the tide." We fail to remember that these small majority are the ones who will, if given the chance, advance our society.* (Grade 6 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).
>
> *Special needs children (those at the higher end of the scale) who excel in various areas of the curriculum. No time is being provided for these to get special attention within the school day.* (Grade 3 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office.)

Other teachers pointed to the need for guidance services for pupils:

> *One of the most pressing problems in our schools right now, in my estimation, is a serious lack of support services in the area of guidance and remedial help. For example, in the school where I teach we have one guidance counsellor for 1200 children from K-12 (we share him with another school). The counsellor in question is a dedicated, fantastic individual but how can one person adequately carry out such a task. I fear that by overworking and placing unreasonable demands upon such an individual we will drive him out of the system.* (Grade 7 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).
>
> *Most of all, I feel, are the students who have so many problems but we lack counsellors to deal with them.* (Grade 1 and 2 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office).
>
> *Our school is desperately in need of a Guidance Counsellor. This is not the fault of the school*

> *board (that we don't have one). I believe they advertise each year but without success. The Educational Psychologist is spread over the whole area and consequently is seen in our school only "once in a while."* (Grade 1 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

In response to this question and as indicated in earlier sections dealing with the work of program coordinators, some teachers felt they could benefit from more in-school work by coordinators.

> *More classroom activity by coordinators. Sometimes they lose touch with the "real" classroom situation and are idealistic. Some teaching practices are fine in theory but working with the funding and resources Newfoundland teachers have, they are a farce to implement in Newfoundland Schools.* (Primary, Special Education teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office).

> *Personnel from central office should spend more time in classrooms with teachers. They could help plan a particular unit and assist in the teaching of same. This would be particularly beneficial at the elementary level. It would benefit the students and the teacher.* (Grade 1 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office).

> *The biggest problem with the teacher and school board personnel is that you can go for a long time without seeing them. Sometimes they are viewed as the people on the other side. We should be working "TOGETHER", in the good of our children but instead we are viewed as each other's enemy.* (Kindergarten teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office).

> *Implementation of new programs at school level (i.e., classroom). Coordinators spend too much time at the office and not enough in the schools and classrooms guiding teachers in program development, instructional strategies and evaluation techniques.* (Grade 6 and 7 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).

A number of principals echoed similar sentiments:

> *[Central office personnel] should generally spend time in school interacting with teachers and students, assisting in classrooms, talking in staff rooms to get a better appreciation as to current activities in schools and hence enable them to be more supportive of school initiatives.* Senior High principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

> *Program/instructional concerns. Help can be immediate, and of most direct help to teachers, if it were in the school.* (Principal, Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

> *Under the present set up little can be accomplished. Central office can be run by a Superintendent and a Business Manager. Take the others and place them in the schools. Many (too many) office personnel are hidden away in the central office because they want to get away from the classroom. Sounds harsh, but that's what I think after spending thirty years on the front lines.* (Principal, Secondary School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

Others pointed to the potential value of providing for networking among teachers.

> *I feel that teachers need to be recognized for any special work that they do with their classes. There should be more communication between teachers of the same grades throughout the district...* (Grade 4 teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate IV, 11-25 km from board office).

> *I have everything in my classroom that I need. What I really need is a continuing in flowing of fresh new ideas that come from the kind of in-service we used to have more regularly - a sharing with other teachers who teach my subject and more in-service with "specialists" in a field.* (Primary, Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

> *Since we are an isolated school, we have very little contact or interaction with other teachers. We would like in-service with other teachers not by ourselves.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office).

> *See where there are weaknesses in instruction - find other schools that have a better set-up for the same area and then try to transfer the reasons why one is working, over to the area where it isn't working. This isn't easy but it shouldn't be ignored simply because it entails effort.* (Principal, Primary Elementary School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).

As indicated in Table 19 a number of teachers and principals cited poor physical facilities as a key issue to be addressed.

> *Our school is an old school with many things in a state of disrepair. Each year some repairs are made but only as a stop gap measure. We really are in need of major repairs to the physical structure of our building. Our playground and parking area need improvement.* (Grade 2 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

> *My classroom is a need of several minor repairs ranging from replacement of burnt out lights to inability to tightly close windows. Although this has been reported several times, nothing has been done and maintenance is a service supposedly provided by central office.* (Secondary teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).

> *My classroom in September/October and from late April onwards is intolerably hot (37-38 degrees is not at all uncommon). You have to be there to appreciate just how uncomfortable it is. To expect me and the students to perform under these conditions is downright inhumane.* (Senior High teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

> *The needs at this school relate primarily to physical plant. There is a desperate need for a new school in the town.* (Principal, All-Grade School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

Still others pointed to a lack of resources.

> *"The need for more resources. Because of the financial situation of our board, very few of the resources we need to make an education in our school comparable to, say, a St. John's school, are available. So lack of Government funding for schools in small outport communities and small school boards enables us only to provide a second class education. The fault here does not lie with the boards but with the government policy and school tax structure. Where is the fairness in the system, for small schools in output communities.* (Senior High teacher is an All-Grade School, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).

> *Areas yet to be addressed, for the most part cannot be addressed for reasons of financing. E.g., course selection choice at senior high level limited by limited lab facilities, smaller teacher/student ratio thus more one-on-one instruction, more library resource materials. The problem is not with not having new/innovative programs, methodologies. Rather, not having necessary resources to compliment and facilitate their implementation.* (Secondary Teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, >75 km from board office).

> *I have experienced "politics" when requesting equipment to teach a course. The first request is ignored. The second time it reaches "maybe he needs it." By the fifth request it becomes "He must want this" and eventually you may get it. In my case it was 3 door bell transformers @ $6.00 each and I never did get them.* (Secondary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office).

> *I feel strongly that schools should not have to raise monies for materials necessary for the plant - i.e., copiers/copy kits, typewriters/computers!...*

> *The school should be a pleasant place to be... our staff rooms are deplorable - no other professional area is as deprived as we!* (Principal, Secondary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

> *"More instructional materials are needed.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office).

A number of principals felt that the locus of control ought to shift to the school level from the central office. Some pointed to their desire for greater autonomy for both teachers and principals.

> *The greatest need facing teachers is the need for true opportunities for professional growth. The present structure answers only the needs of central office personnel. The present system is designed, in effect, to ensure agendas are determined by central office and/or Department of Education personnel, that "control and direction," as my Superintendent terms it, is exercised by the central office. This system attempts to mold and form teachers to act and think in predetermined ways, rather than allowing teachers the autonomy to mature, and the freedom to accept responsibility for their own professional growth. Essentially, our system is "boss" centered. Both Department of Education and central office personnel are very reluctant to relinquish control. Such a structure hardly encourages the development of child centered schooling. For children to become the centre of teaching, for children to become free and critical thinkers, it follows that our education system must become teacher centered. This cannot happen within the present structure.* (Principal, K-6 School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office).

> *I feel that central office is doing the best they can under the present organizational situation. Let's revise our system. Let principals become responsible for hiring, programming and instruction and less time in actual teaching. Principals should be empowered to play an active role in the school setting...* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office).

> *Place the responsibility for curriculum and instruction back in the school and put a person there responsible for it.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office).

Class size was an issue with many teachers although it was not as salient in the comments of principals.

> *Many classes in our schools are in excess of 35 pupils. These numbers are not conducive to a good teaching - learning situation... In view of the numbers of students, different courses taught, supervisory and advisory duties, teachers are presently over burdened by the teacher workload.* (Senior High teacher, >20 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office).

> *Our primary class sizes have been increasing over the past several years, but we are still cut back in staff and are presently having to use specialist teachers (i.e., remedial and librarian) in the classroom to alleviate the overcrowding. This reduces these areas of services to the whole school and seems to be taking a step backward from the services we were able to provide a couple of years ago. The future continues to look just as bleak for next year as well.* (Grade 3 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate IV, <10 km from board office).

> *My most important concerns now are large class enrolment and lack of space to put new methodologies into practice. Teachers can't cope with 31 children and attend to all their needs. Now children come to school from various backgrounds (e.g., child abuse, divorce, etc.) and they need a lot more attention. I feel our greatest need now is lowering the pupil teacher ratio and it seems there is nothing being done about it. I feel someone from the board office could at least come and visit to see how large enrolments affect children.* (Grade 2 teacher, 11-20 years experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office).

One final category of teacher comments included a potpourri of ideas for modification to the curriculum. Suggested changes included: "A new Grade 6 social studies program"; "More emphasis on grammar", "Incorporating band and choir into the regular timetable", "New Roman Catholic religious education courses", "A new Kindergarten curriculum" and "More relevant biology courses."

Principal/Teacher Recommendations With Respect to Current Provincial Structure

The final item on the principal and teacher questionnaire invited respondents to indicate whether or not they would suggest changes in the current practice of providing professional services to schools. More specifically, respondents were asked to indicate:

(a) whether they would suggest the retention of the existing system without modification;

(b) retain the existing system with modifications; or

(c) restructure the existing system.

If respondents selected (b), they were invited to explain their suggestions regarding modifications to the system and similarly, if they selected (c), they were asked to present their recommendations regarding ways in which the system could be restructured. Table 20, presents a summary of the responses of teachers and principals to this question. Twenty-one percent of the respondents suggested that the existing system be retained without modification, 43% suggested that the system be retained but with some modification and 36% recommended a complete restructuring of the present practice of providing professional support services to schools and teachers.

Table 20. Principal/teacher Recommendations with Respect to the Structure of Current System

| | Retain System Without Modifications | | Retain System With Modifications | | Restructure the Existing System | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Teachers | 18 | 22 | 35 | 44 | 26 | 33 |
| Principals | 8 | 19 | 17 | 40 | 18 | 42 |
| Totals | 26 | 21 | 52 | 43 | 44 | 36 |

With the exception of two comments to the contrary, the overarching theme emanating from the suggestions of teachers and principals was that the number of central office personnel be reduced. Some felt that at least a portion of existing central office personnel ought to be deployed to teach in schools, thereby reducing the pupil/teacher ratio. The following are representative comments:

> *I strongly feel that these units assigned to the board would be more effective if they were actually out in the school system. I feel too many teaching units are assigned to board office. The services now provided could be done by fewer people and such a move would help alleviate the problems of (1) large classes in primary and elementary, and (2) limited program offerings in our high schools because of shortage of teachers.* (Principal, Secondary School, >20 years of administrative experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)

> *There are too many personnel at the board levels who seem to duplicate the services that a lot of others are providing. Too much overlapping does no one any good. Some of these positions should be put back into the classroom where they could be of better use to the students.* (Grade Two teacher, 3-10 years teaching experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office.)

> *Coordinators should revert to classroom teachers. Not to cause other teachers to lose their positions but as extra teaching positions. This would bring the teacher/pupil ratio more in line and would be a much more effective use of manpower.* (Grade One teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate IV, < 10 km from board office.)

> *I feel we need some modification but I haven't studied any other systems to compare it. I feel some coordinator positions could be eliminated and have them go back to teaching and lower the*

> *pupil-teacher ratio.* (Grade Two teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)
>
> *If there are people at board office who are not making a difference with teachers and the students, let them return to the classroom where they can make a difference - where the teacher-student ratio can be reduced, where they can have some influence on the young people of the province.* (Junior High School Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)
>
> *Classroom teachers are needed, not board office people falling over each other. The curriculum is given and we teach it. We do not need people "making work" for all and for nothing. Instead of coordinators, peer help should be utilized.* (Grade Five Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, 11-25 km from board office.)
>
> *I think it is about time for the system to be restructured because we can ill-afford the duplication of services now existing. Our board alone is very top heavy with consultants and coordinators who are guilty of not doing very much in their high paying jobs. (Seen through the eyes of many teachers.)* (Junior high teacher, 3-10 years experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)
>
> *Many of our schools are over-crowded and teachers have classrooms with 39 or 40 children. This is certainly a survival of the fittest for some children. Some of our consultants and coordinators could and should come back to the classroom and "start working."* (Kindergarten teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office.)
>
> *To the best of my knowledge, coordinators are used in pupil/teacher ratio and as such they should be doing half time positions in the classroom.* (Senior High Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office.)
>
> *I feel the job could just as effectively be done with fewer people and put the extra people back in the classroom so the children would benefit, e.g., help lower the pupil/teacher ratio.* (Primary, Elementary teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)

Other principals and teachers felt that school board office personnel should spend much more time in schools working in an advisory capacity with teachers. While they recognized the need for help for teachers, they felt the existing system was inadequate or inappropriate because school board office personnel were too far removed from the everyday reality of schools and pupils. The following are sample quotations.

> *Encourage everyone at board office to have more direct contact with the schools. Teachers and board office personnel are employed because there are students. The classroom is the key place in the education system - everything else is the periphery. If we are so busy making policy and implementing policy, that we do not "see" the student, then we are all losing focus on what our educational system should be doing. Teachers need support from all board office personnel throughout the year, not only those times when it is your turn to be supervised.* (Junior High School Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)
>
> *If the current system were to remain, I would like to see coordinators play a more active role in the implementing of our curriculum. They must be more accessible to the classes and provide teachers with materials, ideas, etc., to enhance these programs. I think this could work with a redefining of job descriptions. Most of these people have many valuable attributes but I don't think they always reach the schools.* (Grade Two teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)
>
> *I am a special services teacher and as such I see very little of the personnel at board office. I would like to see all coordinators more involved in providing services to teachers who work with learning disabled students within the regular classroom. Lower level reading materials, or some subject matters, should be provided to students and teachers so the students are better able to*

*perform. In-service should be given regularly, especially to the classroom teacher who can't understand why a 'slower' student is in his classroom and maybe doesn't want him there, so everyone suffers.* (Special Services Teacher, Junior High School level, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office.)

*I believe that the existing system with modifications could adequately serve the needs of schools and teachers. However, central office personnel should be made more accountable for the services they provide. I find it ludicrous, for example, that coordinators salary should be based on the number of classes in the board when they have very little direct contact with the students in the classroom. Coordinators who, supposedly, are aware of the latest developments in curriculum, have made little effort to make classroom teachers aware of these developments. If the existing system is to work, central office personnel must be more responsive to the needs of the classroom teacher.* (Principal, All-Grade School, <2 years administrative experience, Certificate IV, >76 km from board office.)

*The role of central office personnel should not be confined to conducting workshops of an insignificant nature, for teachers. They should, instead, be spending their time in the schools offering advice and direction to teachers.* (Principal, Primary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)

*Changes should be made to allow board personnel to spend more time working one on one with teachers in the classroom."* (Principal, All-Grade School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office.)

A number of respondents suggested that redundancies within the system could be eliminated if consolidation, particularly across denominational lines, were to occur. The following are some of these comments:

*Corner Brook does not need the services of a math coordinator for Roman Catholic, Integrated, etc. There are three or four coordinators for some areas (by Religion) and none for others. Integration of top levels and program coordinators will allow for more areas to be covered by less people.* (Principal, Junior High School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office.)

*I feel that in the area of program coordination great duplication exists. If education is to receive cutbacks, changes or cuts can be made here especially since this is where there are highly paid individuals. Question? Is it necessary to have a Catholic, Integrated, and Pentecostal Coordinator for math, social studies, physical education, etc. (especially in the same town)? (Religion - yes). Answer: NO!! It's time for change. Rationale: Within some towns there are three denominational school systems. Also, there maybe a school board office or two for one or more of these denominations. Some sharing of program coordination should exist where coordinators do not have to travel from district offices located two hours away when there is a coordinator only a few minutes away. Similar arrangements are in place with specialists sharing between all denominations (Educational Psychology - shared between two or three boards). Possible Solution: Regional program coordination offices (serving all denominations). Some present facilities and board offices could be utilized.*

*Examples*

*Avalon Region*
*Central Region*
*Western Region*
*Burin Peninsula*
*Northern Peninsula*
*Labrador*

*Size of office would vary dependent upon number of teachers in district.*

(Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 3-10 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, >76 km from board office.)

*We have no need of two school boards in Labrador, but, of course, maintaining the status quo is a top priority with our boards, especially the Roman Catholic Board. Maintenance of this archaic system was apparently guaranteed by Newfoundland's terms of Union with Canada. Nothing will change."* (Senior High Teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)

*In our small area we have both a Roman Catholic and an Integrated central office, so many jobs are duplicated. With integration and subsequent reduction of staff, I feel the same services could be provided.* (Grade Five Teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office.)

*"Remove structure of separate Central Offices (by religious denomination)."* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, 26-75 km from board office.)

*I would suggest a regional set up. Divide the island part of the province into four regions. Labrador would make the fifth region. Each region would have qualified and experience professional staff to do the job.* (Secondary Teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 26-75 km from board office.)

*Consolidate the various school systems into one provincial group. Eliminate a large number of the redundancies in the various school boards, i.e., Assistant Superintendents, Program Coordinators. We need one group to be responsible for a course, not several.* (Junior High School Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, <10 km from board office.)

*I am not convinced that the positions of coordinators are being utilized to the level where teachers/students are benefitting. Given the number of positions around the province, I advocate a system where-by they become fewer in number but more regional in nature, thereby providing a service which is more uniform/consistent throughout the province. To a large extent now you have each coordinator operating in each board doing his/her own thing. For whose benefit?* (Senior High Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office.)

*Our board tried to do a little restructuring on its own. Hip! Hip! However, then we find that they cut Language Arts consultants to one and a half units but are keeping two Religious Education units. If they consolidated with the Integrated Board, I hope these situations would be resolved with better outcomes.* (Kindergarten Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office.)

A number of principals and teachers felt that the major responsibility for some aspects of curriculum and instruction ought to devolve to the school level. In effect they were suggesting a decentralization of the system with the school accepting a greater share of the responsibility. Here are some of the comments:

*My own personal feeling has always been to place a professional, competent Principal and Vice-Principal within each school and that would be sufficient. I don't have too much patience with the present existing system of school boards.* (Grade Six teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, > 76 km from board office.)

*To me as a teacher, the most important person is the principal. It is the principal who is in contact with the teachers and students on a daily basis so the principal is best suited to help the teacher or student in any way.* (Senior High teacher, >20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, 11-25 km from board office.)

*I feel that central office is doing the best they can under the present organizational situation. Let's revise our system. Let principals become responsible for hiring, programming, and instruction and less time in actual teaching. Principals should be empowered to play an active role in the school setting - develop peer coaching for instance to improve productivity in the classroom. That's where it all counts.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >75 km from board office.)

> *I believe the most effective delivery of programs and/or introduction of new curriculum is best done by school personnel. The Principal of the school should be given the responsibility to develop curriculum, and the necessary time free from classroom duties to promote or implement it. He could access departmental program coordinators on a board level to assist in introducing new programs....* (Principal, All-Grade School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, >76 km from board office.)

> *Put one administrator in the school and another as the curriculum/ instructional leader. Teachers would have an immediate ready access, and he/she would be viewed as part of the staff and someone who knows what is going on in the school.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office.)

Some principals and teachers pointed to the fact that program coordinators and other central office personnel, because they were physically removed from schools, could not provide the kind of help that teachers needed. In order to overcome this problem a number of suggestions were made.

> *...When new programs, etc., are introduced, there would be a need for someone to coordinate it. Maybe classroom teachers could be seconded for a year or two to work on new programs and in-service teachers. All too often teachers are asked to work on new programs but they have their regular classroom work to do as well/this is too much to expect of teachers. I feel classroom teachers are more in tune with what's going on at their grade level, whereas coordinators coordinate subjects from K-12, which is a large span, and a lot of them have only taught in the area of Elementary, Junior High, or Senior High.* (Primary Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office.)

> *I feel that some "coordinator system" is needed so that teachers have a "lead" from where new ideas and programs are established. However, these coordinators have to bring these things to the schools and work with the teachers. Maybe a person in each school who works as half time teacher, half time coordinator for that school would work. Whatever, coordinators must become more visible.* (Elementary teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office.)

> *Coordinators should be assigned to schools as well as to board office, or shared between two. Help keep them in touch.* (Senior High Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, <10 km from board office.)

> *We have many teachers in our system who are very capable and have many talents. I say, some of our coordinators could be taught a lot by them. Teachers would benefit from a workshop given by a teacher who is telling them about a strategy or strategies that worked for them. This situation is true for the other board and if these boards were consolidated we would benefit from great teachers in each system.* (Kindergarten Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, <10 km from board office.)

> *What presently exists is really not working to the best advantage of student nor teacher. This system of inservicing new programs is totally ineffective. Some of the problems may be due to the fact that coordinators have too many curriculum areas and too big a geographical region to travel in order to inservice new programs. What is needed is a school-based system of providing inservice at the local level with the implementors of curriculum change working in the classroom with students and staff, as well as providing the theoretical basis for this change. This should also be accomplished over a period of time (i.e., week or weeks) with some form of evaluation of the new program to take place at various stages of the implementation. If you want more value for the dollar and a more effective and efficient system of program development you have to seriously ask yourself how you can best implement this so that classroom teachers feel a sense of self-worth in this process and they also feel that they are a part of the process as opposed to*

*having it imposed upon them.* (Grade 6-7 Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office.)

A number of principals and teachers noted the fact that although presently most coordinators are responsible only for one subject area, the system could be modified to have coordinators responsible for total programs, for example, primary or elementary or to allow coordinators to work in more than one subject area.

> *We have a primary coordinator. Teachers in the primary [grades] do not have to work with seven or eight other coordinators except on occasion when the need arises. Most teachers in the elementary teach most subjects at a particular grade level and now with the thrust on resource based learning there is much more integration across subject areas. It is my opinion that if programs are well developed at the provincial level then teachers don't need input from as many subject coordinators. I would prefer a system with an elementary coordinator who has access to "experts" in the various subject areas. At the same time it is essential to have libraries that are well staffed and equipped, and teachers need time to plan well.* (Principal, Primary/Elementary School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office.)

> *[We need] three or four coordinators with each responsible for several subject disciplines. They would be responsible for arranging meetings of teachers to discuss problems and to share ideas (same subject or grade). I have found most workshops and professional days to be a waste of the taxpayers' money. Coordinators should only serve two years maximum at central office and then have to return to the classroom for at least a year. (They tend to loose touch with the classroom very quickly.) Many times I feel decisions are made with the students being the last group that is considered.* (Senior High School Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, >76 km from board office.)

> *Although there are some merits to the present system, much of the help that teachers get from office personnel is inadequate to cope with various diverse needs. In effect, many or most all office personnel who visit classrooms are generally equipped to deal with only one aspect of instruction. As a result, with limited time, only one particular need can be addressed. I am suggesting that office personnel could be more helpful if they were not limited to one subject area. Indeed, prior to our existing system, supervisor's were capable of handling various subjects in the curriculum. Accordingly, their efforts realized much success. Therefore, there should be more flexibility displayed by many of our office personnel.* (Junior High School Teacher, 3-10 years teaching experience, Certificate VII, 26-75 km from board office.)

> *Program coordinators can look after more than one subject but should have training in each they supervise - good intentions aren't enough.* (Junior High School Teacher, 11-20 years teaching experience, Certificate V, < 10 km from board office.)

> *In this time of restraint, especially, one would question the value of the present structure. It is my opinion that the restructuring which took place some years ago as a result of the Riggs/Crocker report went to the extreme with respect to Assistant Superintendents and Program Coordinators. These positions are too far removed from the classroom to have any meaningful impact on it. Granted there is a degree of coordination and administration needed in matters which come before the board, now it seems that the strata (structure) is such that a great deal of time is spent in meetings - leaving little time for action.* (Principal, Elementary School, >20 years administrative experience, Certificate VI, < 10 km from board office.)

> *Certain subject areas do warrant a coordinator but certainly the areas with few students, comparatively, can be 'coordinated' by one individual or as part of his or her role as Assistant Superintendent.* (Senior High School Principal, 11-20 years administrative experience, Certificate VII, < 10 km from board office.)

In addition to the foregoing a number of other ideas were suggested including:

- an increase in the number of specialists available to help with problem pupils in schools;
- the increase of funding particularly to small rural boards;
- a more personal touch in the system, somewhere teachers can turn to discuss personal as well as professional problems;
- the need to clarify roles of people at district offices;
- the need to make Central Office personnel more accountable, for example, through a regular monthly Central Office newsletter outlining what each of the staff had been involved in during the past month;
- the need to ensure hiring of Central Office personnel who are very competent and highly trained, and
- the possibility of the introduction of a team concept whereby a team of Central Office personnel would be assigned to a particular school within a district to work in a collaborative way with the principal and staff.

Table 21 provides a breakdown of the major categories of comments forthcoming from principals and teachers with regard to suggestions they would make for changing the existing system.

Table 21. Principal/teacher Comments Regarding Restructuring of System

| | Teachers | | Principals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category of Comments | No. | % | No. | % |
| Reassign central office personnel to schools to teach or to help teachers | 20 | 24 | 12 | 24 |
| Consolidate systems to eliminate redundancies | 12 | 14 | 7 | 14 |
| Provide general rather than subject-specific coordination | 4 | 5 | 3 | 6 |
| Decentralize decision-making to school level | 4 | 5 | 4 | 8 |
| School district office personnel should work on a system of rotation or secondment | 3 | 4 | 2 | 4 |
| Establish teacher networks | 3 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Comments provided did not include suggestions for change | 11 | 13 | 10 | 20 |
| No comment | 31 | 35 | 11 | 22 |

## RESPONSES OF DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PERSONNEL

The questionnaire circulated to personnel at the Department of Education was somewhat different from the one circulated to principals and teachers in that respondents were not asked to comment on their perceptions of specified roles (e.g., Assistant Superintendent) but rather they were asked to reflect generally on the role of central office personnel. The questionnaires, however, were similar in that they dealt with the issues of curriculum, instruction, perceived needs and the structure of the system.

Two groups of individuals at the Department were invited to respond to the questionnaire. The first group consisted of consultants in the area of curriculum and instruction whose work necessarily involves extensive contact with district office personnel. The second group consisted of administrators within the Department whose work in some way is associated with the development of curriculum and instructional services for the Province.

The fundings of this section are presented under four headings:

- Department of Education personnel assessments of the effectiveness of district office personnel in providing curriculum/program support services;
- Department of Education personnel assessments of the effectiveness of district office personnel in providing support services in the area of instruction;
- Department of Education personnel descriptions of other needs not being met by existing systems; and
- Department of Education personnel recommendations with respect to current provincial structure.

A caution to the reader is in order here. For the sake of consistency we have presented the data in this section using a similar format to that used in the presentation of data from principals and teachers. However, given the small numbers of respondents involved, percentages may be misleading; due attention to the frequencies involved is necessary.

## Department of Education Personnel Assessments of the Effectiveness of District Office Personnel in Providing Curriculum/Program Support Services

As Table 22 suggests there is a considerable congruence of views between consultants and administrators at the Department of Education. Approximately 35 percent of each group suggest that district central office personnel have limited effectiveness in the area of curriculum, while 50 percent of each group suggest that this group is effective in providing curriculum services.

Table 22. Department of Education Personnel Ratings of District Office Personnel in the Area of Curriculum

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No | % | No. | % |
| Consultants | 0 | 0 | 6 | 37.5 | 8 | 50 | 1 | 6.25 | 1 | 6.25 |
| Administrators | 0 | 0 | 2 | 33.3 | 3 | 50 | 1 | 16.66 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 0 | 0 | 8 | 36.3 | 11 | 50 | 2 | 9 | 1 | 4.5 |

Most of the comments of Department of Education personnel tended to focus on the role of program coordinator. Many felt that program coordinators did not have adequate preparation for the job or were performing their roles poorly.

> *Program coordinators, as change agents, in some cases, either lack effective counselling skills and knowledge of adult learning principles and of the change process, or fail to reflect this knowledge in coordinating activities.*
>
> *There is a limited number of coordinators with knowledge and expertise in the subject area I am responsible for.*
>
> *Effectiveness is limited by (a) the role actually expected by employing board, (b) relevancy of*

*background to the role and, (c) the willingness to perceive responsibility to job extending outside 8:30-4:30 work day.*

*I believe part of the limited effectiveness of central office staff pertains to the training of such staff. In my opinion, there is limited understanding of what is meant by implementation of curriculum....*

*The wide range of responsibility tends to restrict the level of expertise.*

*For some curriculum areas (e.g., art, physical education) most coordinators lack background and training.... Some areas are an "add on" for the coordinator who may have given priority to another subject area.*

*The thrust (for the most part...) has been mainly in relation to program structure and not with the program planning, instructional design and strategies....*

*The usual practice is.... to provide an introductory workshop on a new program... Seldom is there any further follow-up. The practice is incongruent with current understanding on how to facilitate successful change.*

Other comments related to unrealistic expectations for the role, including:

*Program coordinators are often not effectively deployed because of being assigned responsibilities in more than one program area.*

*I think it is fair to say that follow-up activities to "one shot" workshops are probably not what they might have been.... many coordinators deal with a relatively large number of teachers.*

*Program coordinators, the individuals with prime responsibility for curriculum, are often burdened with administrative tasks such as teacher evaluation, etc. These tasks interfere with their initial reason to be.*

Comments that were complimentary included:

*Where qualified coordinators work closely and effectively with teachers [they] are very effective in meeting program related needs.*

*Most of these people religiously attend provincial curriculum meetings and return to their district with appropriate materials to describe the course, its objectives and purposes to school personnel.*

*School districts which have an Assistant Superintendent of Educational Programs are more effective in program implementation.*

*Expertise of personnel in the field is generally quite good.*

*My opinion is that central office personnel are generally effective in this matter.*

*School districts with primary coordinators have made significant improvements....*

In summary the comments from personnel at the Department of Education have generally been critical despite some of the more positive ratings reported in Table 22.

### Department of Education Personnel Assessments of the Effectiveness of District Office Personnel in Providing Support Services in the Area of Instruction

There was considerable congruence in the ratings of administrators and consultants with respect to the effectiveness of central office personnel in providing support services in the area of instruction. Two-thirds of each group rated district office personnel as having "limited effectiveness" in this sphere. Clearly central office personnel are viewed as being much less effective in the area of instruction than they are in the area of curriculum.

Table 23. Department of Education Personnel Ratings of District Office Personnel in the Area of Instruction

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | | Unable To Judge | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No | % | No. | % |
| Consultants | 0 | 0 | 11 | 68.75 | 4 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6.25 |
| Administrators | 1 | 16.33 | 4 | 66.66 | 1 | 16.33 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 1 | 4.5 | 15 | 68 | 5 | 0 | 0 | | 1 | 4.5 |

As Table 23 shows, 68.75 percent of consultants and 83 percent of administrators felt that central office personnel were either "not effective" or had "limited effectiveness" in delivering instructional support services. A variety of reasons were suggested by consultants.

> *The focus of most central office staff is related to explanation of a new text or instructional materials... Central office personnel should facilitate teachers interacting with fellow teachers, coaching each other, mentoring young teachers, and so on... Central office personnel must facilitate the dialogue among teachers that the cellular structure of the school militates against.*
>
> *Lack of time, lack of personnel, too many teachers to reach, too many projects ongoing.*
>
> *To some extent the hiring of subject area specialists at board office (versus generalists such as primary or elementary coordinations) is a contributing factor.*
>
> *Coordinators spend a large percentage of their time on course/program implementation as opposed to instructional considerations.*
>
> *Lack of time and planning for teachers to meet, dialogue, and learn from each other. Coordinators, given the resources, can be great facilitators of this process.*
>
> *...should, in consultation with school staffs, develop short and long term inservice policies based on the needs of individual classroom teachers, and the overall needs of individual school staffs.*
>
> *Department Heads and school principal should take on a greater role in the delivery of teacher inservice and staff development programs.*
>
> *Not enough contact between central office personnel and the schools.*
>
> *Should visit teachers when necessary versus only when requested.*
>
> *One-on-one... is very time consuming; in some of the larger districts, it would be overwhelming.*

Administrators similarly said:

> *...their role is generally intended to provide subject expertise, the work in the area of general instruction has been extremely limited.*
>
> *The collegial model is a deterrent in that one is reluctant to be judgemental about a colleague's expertise, effectiveness, etc. Absolute minimal competence and teaching effectiveness has to be tolerated for this reason.*
>
> *I believe that the focus has been on "one shot deals" in many cases and this is what has led to the limited effectiveness.*
>
> *There is a tendency to "conduct the inservice," return to board office and focus attention then on another area.*
>
> *Program coordinators do NOT have expertise on a variety of teaching methodologies.*

The respondents who suggested that central office personnel were effective in the area of instruction attributed this to:

> *Individuals are as effective as they can be, given how thinly they are spread.*
>
> *More and more coordinators are reporting a shift in the amount of time they spend in the classroom with teachers, focusing on methodology.*
>
> *They generally promote good teaching and evaluation.*

These comments suggest that Department of Education personnel, both consultants and administrators, perceive that district office personnel are not as effective as they might be in providing instructional support services to schools and teachers.

### Department of Education Personnel Descriptions of Other Needs not Being Met by Existing Systems

Respondents were asked to describe other needs which they felt were not currently being met by central office personnel. The following were some of the needs they identified:

- Promote some subject areas within district schools, e.g., Advanced Math.
- Provide additional teaching resources.
- Improve student evaluation.
- Identify needs, appropriate learning supports, appropriate psychological supports, and appropriate evaluation and feedback mechanisms.
- Develop a systematic approach to inservice.
- Provide enrichment programs.
- Make appropriate modifications and accommodations for special needs students.
- Develop a good system of program and services evaluation.
- Initiate school improvement plans.
- Develop professional development plans to serve all levels of education.
- Review standards of student achievement.
- Design professional development plans for principals.
- Conduct formative evaluation of teachers.
- Promote public relations.
- Arrange for health services in cooperation with community agencies.
- Provide purchasing systems for equipment and supplies.
- Promote enterprise education.
- Promote a spirit of cooperation, a willingness to recognize the vital role of personnel at all levels.
- Improve school climate.
- Raise gender equity issues.

### Department of Education Personnel Recommendations With Respect to Current Provincial Structure

Respondents to the question regarding the retention or modification of the existing system clearly felt it was time for some degree of change. Only one respondent suggested retention of the status quo, however, no reason was provided for that reply. One half the respondents suggested modification of various types to the current system, while 45.5 percent recommended a restructuring of the system.

Table 24. Department of Education Personnel Recommendations with Respect to Structure of Current System

| Respondent Group | Retain System Without Modifications No. | Retain System Without Modifications % | Retain System With Modifications No. | Retain System With Modifications % | Restructure the Existing System No. | Restructure the Existing System % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Consultants | 1 | 6.25 | 9 | 56.25 | 6 | 37.50 |
| Administrators | 0 | 0 | 2 | 33.3 | 4 | 66.66 |
| Total | 1 | 4.5 | 11 | 50 | 10 | 45.5 |

Suggestions for modifications include the following:

*Review "allocation units" per discipline and utilize a system of "secondment" to meet immediate and specific needs for specific time periods.*

*Board sharing of some subject area specialists to enable teachers to have greater access to expertise.*

*Major subject areas require specialized services at most board offices.*

*In very specialized areas, a requested service concept appears to be more appropriate.*

*Each school have an in-school designate responsible for presenting the needs and concerns of school personnel to the various divisions at the Department of Education.*

*Change to contractual positions.*

*In areas other than core, regional coordinators would probably be more desirable (one per 20,000 students in areas like art, music).*

*Geography should be considered in the allocation of district personnel.*

*Assign additional duties to master teachers and school administrations re: provision of inservice based on identified needs.*

Suggestions for restructuring included:

*Combine district office... appoint superintendents on denominational basis and rotate on a term basis... assign necessary staff to provide expertise, as needed, in all subject areas.*

*Assign on a regional basis rather than a denominational basis.*

*Create a structure that requires generalist personnel versus subject specialists.*

*Regional based non-denominational resource centres.*

*Establish Professional Development Institute at the University.*

*Regional offices to serve curriculum, instruction and student service needs.*

*Cooperate where feasible without compromising the essential denominational character of the system.*

*Share on a regional basis.*

*Greater consolidation at the board and school level.*

*Schools should have more autonomy for curriculum and instructional matters but should be held more accountable.*

*Department of Education should move away from specific curriculum and text development and* *move more into curriculum objectives and specifications.*

*Remove program coordinators from individual district offices and establish regional offices under the Department of Education... with a limited number of professional development officers at school board offices who would be devoted to activities such as school improvement.*

These recommendations for restructuring, for the most part, while suggesting a considerable realignment of roles and responsibilities, do not, however, represent a consensus with respect to future initiatives.

## RESPONSES OF DISTRICT OFFICES PERSONNEL

This section deals with the views of respondents from school district offices with respect to the current practice of providing professional services to schools and teachers through district office personnel. This group of respondents was different from the other groups surveyed in that they were the group of professionals who were being evaluated. They were not asked to express opinion about the degree to which other people did their job but rather were asked how effective they perceived themselves to be in providing professional services to schools and teachers.

This section is organized as follows:

- District office personnel perceptions of their effectiveness in providing professional services to schools and teachers, and
- District office personnel recommendations with respect to current provincial structure.

As with the previous section, frequencies of respondents are small, hence the need to be cautious with respect to the interpretations of percentages.

### District Office Personnel Perceptions of Their Effectiveness in Providing Professional Services to Schools and Teachers

As Table 25 shows, superintendents viewed themselves as being either "effective" (80%) or "very effective" (20%). Assistant superintendents were generally more positive in that 25 percent saw themselves as "effective" and 62.5 percent saw themselves as "very effective". This difference may be due in part to the fact that in many instances assistant superintendents have more direct responsibility for the delivery of professional services to schools and teachers than do the superintendents.

Coordinators viewed themselves as "effective" (60%), however, 36 percent viewed themselves as having "limited effectiveness" while only four percent saw themselves as "very effective".

Table 25. Self Perceptions of District Office Personnel

| | Not Effective | | Limited Effectiveness | | Effective | | Very Effective | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respondent Group | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Superintendents | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 80 | 1 | 20 |
| Assistant Superintendents | 0 | 0 | 1 | 12.5 | 2 | 25 | 5 | 62.5 |
| Coordinators | 0 | 0 | 9 | 36 | 15 | 60 | 1 | 4 |
| Total | 0 | 0 | 10 | 26.5 | 21 | 55 | 7 | 18.5 |

Superintendents suggested the following reasons for their perceived effectiveness:

*I am a very dedicated person who makes certain that everyone in our employ is pulling his or her weight as provided in the job description.*

*During system organization/reorganization parents have phoned to say I'm on the right track. When I seek volunteers for a project I've never had to look far.*

*I have a good working relationship with my elected School Board and attempt to generate good morale within the district.*

*Sufficient central office staff is available to accomplish most goals. Generally school facilities are not a major concern so we can rise above the "nuts and bolts".*

Assistant Superintendents' comments included:

*I am contributing to school evaluation and school improvement through special inservices I conduct, also a good relationship exists between myself and our schools; I am trusted by them and many of them believe I can help them because of my experiences.*

*Our role becomes very important in helping schools evaluate needs and determine priorities, in helping initiate innovative programs, and in being facilitators in assisting teachers incorporate into their daily activities those approaches which help improve classroom teaching and consequently student performance.*

*I believe I am effective.*

*Standardized implementation of policies, curriculum and decision making; efficiency of operations; morale of administrators, staff, students and parents; and response from Board members.*

*I feel that schools and teachers learn more from fellow teachers - master teachers if you wish. Our delivery of service, through coordinators, is often seen as services that are "handed down" rather than "experiences shared".*

Responding coordinators, although generally pleased with their performances, suggested that in some instances their effectiveness was limited. Reasons given for this were:

*Too many responsibilities in too many areas for too many teachers. Though math and science are traditionally linked in program coordinators - who more recently were given the added responsibilities associated with computers - these are heavy subject areas. To be more effective, I could do better with one of these subject areas (even if accompanied by computers) but not both.*

*Because I am spread over so many programmes of studies; because of geographical distance; because we are still working with pencil and paper (no computer links); and because there is a fair amount of personnel turnover in french program personnel.*

*To improve the instructional climate of the school it has to be a sustained effort which I feel I can't offer. Realistically I get and spend a day a month in a school which is not enough to have any profound effect.*

*One day per week/per school does not afford the time and opportunity to do necessary follow-up. Quite often, one week later when you return to the school, its back to square one. Effective supervision requires on the spot almost all the time.*

*Contact with teachers is too infrequent; teachers (generally) are as competent as the consultant; rigid patterns of behaviour on the part of teachers make change difficult; and teachers have little confidence in coordinators as significant to the system.*

*On a general note, I am able to touch only a few of the people I need to touch. For me there are not enough hours in the day to do all that is needed.*

*Size of district, both geographically and in terms of the large number of schools and teachers. With consolidation I was assigned curriculum responsibilities not in line with my previous duties.*

*Size of district, large number of teachers expecting frequent visits to schools; being responsible for programs K-XII demands the kind of expertise, time and energy rarely found in one individual...the extent of duties outlined negates effective coordination.*

*I feel I need more skills in the delivery of education to adults. I do not have the time to do the background work I would like to because I have five areas of responsibility.*

Coordinators who felt they were effective in delivering professional services suggested that this was so because:

*Since I have started the job four years ago, we have managed to educate teachers... so that we become sensitive to the student's needs and well being.*

*I am able to keep in contact with more teachers on a regular basis.*

*The Superintendent's support for my role and the role of other coordinators has made our jobs much easier.*

*By focusing on teacher development, that is helping the teacher become more effective in the classroom, I believe I am effective. The ineffectiveness happens when we are asked to do too much in too many schools with not enough time.*

*Being assigned Language Arts/Social Studies K-6 and Primary Education gives me a more concentrated area in which to focus. I am more able to address curriculum issues because I am dealing with a limited number of teachers.*

*The curriculum and instruction graduate program at MUN provides the background needed for an effective program coordinator. At present time there are too many "coordinators" with graduate programmes that have an entirely different focus. In my opinion this is one of the major causes of program coordinator's ineffectiveness. They are not qualified for these positions and therefore should not be placed in curriculum oriented positions.*

*Much of this [developments in resource based and cooperative program planning] has been due to the staff level and small group work, as well as the policy development I have been able to provide.*

*An increase in the number of teachers who are willing and able to take leadership roles in the curriculum areas.*

*Two day inservice and follow-up is sufficient. They [teachers] don't want you down their back everyday and are more than willing to provide me with feedback on the value or lack thereof of a particular inservice.*

*This year alone I introduced seven programs into schools under my subject area.*

## District Office Personnel Recommendations With Respect to Current Provincial Structure

There was a variety of opinion among district office personnel with respect to the adequacy of the existing system. Forty percent of superintendents suggested maintaining the system without modification. This view was held by only 12.5 percent of the assistant superintendent and 11.1 percent of the coordinators. The majority of the respondents, 40 percent of the superintendents, 75 percent of the assistant superintendents and 59 percent of the coordinators felt the system should be modified while 20 percent of the superintendents, 12.5 percent of the assistant superintendents and 30 percent of the coordinators felt the system should be restructured (see Table 26).

Table 26. School District Office Personnel Recommendations with Respect to the Structure of the Current System

| Respondent Group | Retain System Without Modifications<br>No. | Retain System Without Modifications<br>% | Retain System With Modifications<br>No. | Retain System With Modifications<br>% | Restructure the Existing System<br>No. | Restructure the Existing System<br>% |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Superintendents | 2 | 40 | 2 | 40 | 1 | 20 |
| Assistant Superintendents | 1 | 12.5 | 6 | 75 | 1 | 12.5 |
| Coordinators | 3 | 11 | 16 | 59 | 8 | 29.6 |
| Total | 6 | 15 | 24 | 60 | 10 | 25 |

Suggestions for restructuring the system included the following:

*Reduce duplication of bureaucracy throughout the province. All boards on the Avalon could be administered from one central location with staff shared in all areas except Religious Education and Family Life. The same could be done in Central and Western Newfoundland.*

*Provincially operated regional offices should be established with the sole purpose of providing professional development for teachers. These offices would operate as teams with a clearly focused agenda. Each team would be responsible for 1000-1500 teachers and would provide one week of inservice - professional development to teachers of all denominations at appropriate sites in the region.*

*Have one system housing everyone… Religious Education will be slotted for everyone.*

*In future the focus [of coordinators] needs to be more directed to instructional strategies and classroom management.*

*A regional services model… Place a group of coordinators in each zone so that each specialized area of curriculum is covered… Inservice must be more school based and more the responsibility of administrators and curriculum committees within the school… with a pool of expertise available [from regional centres] to the schools.*

*The Department of Education should be housed under one umbrella instead of the present arrangement. Student services, curriculum should be ONE and their role should be more collaborative and less dictatorial.*

*I would suggest that coordinators be responsible for no more than two subject areas and that they be designated coordinators for certain grade levels, e.g., Elementary coordinators for Social Studies and Religion Education. …I wish at times that I had more authority.*

*Either we [coordinators] work in smaller, more compact units or we take on the role of consultants.*

Rather than restructuring the system the majority of people suggested that some form of modification should occur. Examples of such suggestions are:

*Share services with our neighbouring boards, e.g., coordinators, facilitators, bussing.*

*The present system does not give school districts the flexibility to address needs (Staffing regulations for coordinators is too prescriptive).*

*Use more master teachers.*

*It may be feasible to consider regional services in certain specialized areas, i.e., music…*

*however, it is difficult to envisage professional support services in general being adequately provided on a provincial or large regional level.*

*Delegate all teacher evaluation to principals.*

*Curriculum coordination on geographical basis would be possible in most subject areas...*

*Extend the school year to provide time for inservice, to avoid interruptions during the year.*

*Put in place the concept of an "electronic village" when all French programs are linked between districts and departments.*

*If change and implementation is what we are about then some individuals [principals] at school level have to be given leadership roles in curriculum matters.*

*Have within the principal or vice-principal in each school, a strong background in curriculum... Some services to schools could be provided on a regional basis.*

*We [coordinators] should be hired to work with teachers in the classroom - as our only role.*

*Assigning coordinators to primary, elementary, intermediate and senior high leads to a more concentrated effort to overseeing curriculum change and implementation. Initiating change... is better enhanced when one deals with a limited audience.*

*More sharing of services... resources and personnel.*

*Provide a more equitable distribution of coordinators based on district size and areas of responsibility. This is particularly critical in large districts and in core subject areas. A simple solution is to use "master teachers" who are contracted for specific assignments over a specified period of time.*

*School principals must have, and enact, a role that complements that of the program coordinator in the area of program implementation; program coordinators should occupy a line position rather than a staff position.*

*District offices should be joint efforts between denominations and should be concentrated in a smaller geographical area. District office personnel would be responsible for all schools [school would be denominational] within the district.*

*More line authority in the specific curriculum area would be more appropriate and effective.*

Generally speaking district office personnel suggest three areas for change: the need to reduce duplication of services in particular communities served by two or more district offices; the initiation of regional structures to provide improved services in some areas of curriculum and instruction, and the desirability of focusing efforts at the school level.

## IV. CONSIDERATION OF CONCEPTS - SOME QUESTIONS

This section of the report deals with those questions and/or concepts with which we feel the Commission will have to wrestle as it deals with the issues raised by the data in this report.

### The Question of Change

It is perhaps useful to consider possible alterations to existing systems in terms of two types of change. Cuban (1989) suggests that change can be conceived as either first- or second-order. First-order changes are posited on the assumption that existing goals and administrative structures are basically adequate and acceptable and that desired changes involve only a fine tuning of the system, a refinement of existing policies and practices. First-order changes are not aimed at altering basic structures, they are designed to improve efficiency and effectiveness of the existing system. To use an analogy, engineers would consider such changes as answers to quality control issues. First-order changes to curriculum and instruction support systems might include the adoption of such practices as:

(a) encouraging or requiring existing school districts to combine or share central office personnel in order to more effectively and efficiently serve schools in a particular geographic region;

(b) establishing intermediate school districts or educational service centers to provide curriculum development, instructional support and specialist services on a regional basis throughout the province;

(c) changing the focus of the work of program coordinators from curriculum development in specific disciplines to that of improving instruction across disciplines;

(d) strengthening current practices of administrator evaluation;

(e) instituting effective professional development programs for school district personnel including superintendents, assistant superintendents, coordinators and specialists, and

(f) developing specific role descriptions for various central office positions to eliminate existing ambiguity with respect to roles.

The foregoing examples are all similar in that they are embedded in an historical and cultural context and in a point of view which accepts the basic worth of existing provincial arrangements for the provision of such services to schools.

Second-order changes by contrast are aimed at altering the fundamental purposes and structures of the existing system. Second-order changes involve visions of alternatives with respect to what might or ought to be, those alternatives differing substantially from practices embedded in the existing organization. Realizing second-order change necessarily involves realignment of fundamental roles, routines and relationships within the system. Cuban suggests that engineers would label such changes as solutions to design problems.

Second-order changes, in the area of support systems to schools, might include the adoption of such practices as:

(a) the elimination of school districts as they presently exist. They could be replaced, for example, by local school councils, those councils conceivably becoming influential in curriculum and instructional issues;

(b) devolving the curriculum decision-making function, which it might be argued is now primarily situated within the provincial Department of Education, to local school systems. The situation in England prior to the adoption of the National Curriculum would be roughly analogous;

(c) the introduction of school-based budgeting, each school being provided a budget within which the administration could make decisions with respect to such issues as staffing, curriculum provision, facilities, etc.;

(d) the adoption of school-based management committees consisting of teachers parents and pupils who would be responsible for providing direction in terms of the management of the school, and

(e) making provisions for small groups of parents (e.g., New Zealand requires a minimum of 20) to initiate their own school.

The foregoing examples of second order changes are similar in that they all challenge to varying degrees, the taken-for-granted elements of present-day arrangements for the delivery of educational services to pupils. Each of the examples if adopted, would necessitate a fundamental reordering of existing structures with resulting shifts in roles and responsibilities among agencies and individuals within the system.

When change is conceived in this fashion, the task of making recommendations relative to the delivery of professional services to schools is perhaps a little clearer. Basically either we accept the fundamental worth of existing arrangements and recommend fine tuning within that context, or we propose an alternative vision from that which now exists.

### The Question of Principles of Governance

The foregoing conceptualization of change suggests that the writers have one of two options. The first option, the recommendation of first-order changes of the types provided in the examples in the foregoing section, while not without problems, would nevertheless be somewhat straightforward. It is possible given the data collected and the review of literature, to suggest possible modifications to the existing system. The recommendation of second-order changes is much more problematic for the writers of this report. This work is of necessity only one piece of a much more complex picture of which we know very little at this point in time. In particular, the authors are not privy to recommendations about possible governance structures within which to situate our recommendations.

The delivery of professional services to schools is, of course, nested within a complex web of power, authority and influence. In the absence of a delineation of those relationships we have to conjecture as to the type of principles which could guide proposals for changes in the delivery of professional services to schools and teachers in the future. The following set of principles, an adaptation of Guthrie (1985), illustrate what we mean:

> *the system should retain decisions at the lowest government level (school management committee or school board, depending upon system adopted) unless there is a compelling argument to elevate the issue for reasons of equity or efficiency;*
>
> *the system should protect the overall interest of the province while simultaneously soliciting and implementing the reasonable preferences of local communities/clients;*
>
> *the system should permit clear and reciprocal communication from the provincial policy-making level to the teacher in the classroom;*
>
> *the system should eliminate any unnecessary duplication of educational services;*
>
> *the system should be neither so large as to invite formation of impermeable and insensitive bureaucracies, nor so small as to jeopardize equality of educational opportunity or risk unwarranted diseconomies of scale;*
>
> *the system should balance public control over schools, on one hand, with the autonomy of its professional staff on the other;*
>
> *the system should be sufficiently stable to maintain client and employee allegiance while being flexible enough to accommodate changes over time, and*
>
> *the system should have built in mechanisms for self-assessment and renewal to ensure relevance and viability.*

We feel some set of principles is required in order to guide decision-making with respect to various subsystems within the broader context. In fact, we would recommend this set of principles for close examination by the commission.

### The Question of 'Curriculum' and 'Instruction'

The relationship between 'curriculum' and 'instruction' is a matter of much debate within the educational community; there is no consensus regarding either the definitions of these concepts or the appropriate interplay between the two. Two positions are particularly noteworthy.

First there is the argument that curriculum and instruction are discrete concepts. Curriculum, in this view, consists of the educational plan including intended goals, content, suggested teaching/ learning activities and proposed evaluation schemes undergirding school programs. This definition of the concept is inherent in the use of such terminology as "The Provincial Curriculum." Generally speaking within this perspective, instruction is viewed as the way in which that educational plan (the curriculum) is actually implemented with pupils in the educational setting; the curriculum is the intended fare and instruction is the vehicle for delivery. Teacher planning, then, is seen as the link between the curriculum and classroom instruction/ teaching. This fairly traditional conceptualization, that the curriculum is something to be designed by agencies or personnel external to the teacher, and that instruction is the faithful enactment of the curriculum by teachers and pupils in schools, seems to be rooted in a positivist assumption of a top-down, control-oriented system of administration. Curriculum development and curriculum implementation, given this perspective, are distinctly different tasks, the former being the responsibility of educational authorities (e.g., the nation or the province) and the latter, the responsibility of schools and teachers. Such a view is commensurable with a centralized educational system in which the primary locus of curricular decision-making is placed within such forums as provincial government departments or national agencies.

An alternative perspective holds that curriculum and instruction are closely interconnected concepts. The curriculum, it is argued, consists not only of the educational plan including goals and content but as well includes the actualization of those intentions within the instructional act. Instruction and curriculum are seen as being inextricably intertwined, instruction affecting curriculum and vice versa. Proponents of such a view argue that although it might occasionally be appropriate to conceive of differences between curriculum and instruction, the two must not be viewed as being discrete. One conceptualization is to view the instructional act as the actual or functional curriculum while the educational plan is the intended or inert curriculum. Curriculum development and curriculum implementation conceived in such a manner are no longer viewed as being in a linear, prescriptive relationship; rather instruction is viewed as a curriculum act, in fact the most important curricular act; instruction is the curriculum in action. 'Curriculum', in this conceptualization, consists of the experiences of the child in the school setting; i.e., curriculum and instruction become essentially synonymous. The teacher is now seen as the key individual in creating curriculum experiences for the individual child. Rather than being a passive conduit for the centrally provided curriculum, teachers have an important role in determining and shaping what pupils in their charge will have the opportunity to learn. This is not to suggest that the teacher does not draw upon resources such as goal statements, teacher resource books or textbooks, however, there is autonomy to design and implement as he or she sees fit. This second viewpoint is typically aligned with a decentralized view of curriculum planning. The teacher's task is not simply to implement that which has been designed externally but rather to interpret, modify and redesign external documents and proposals to meet the specific imperatives emanating from a particular cultural and instructional context. The extreme position in this regard would put the teacher clearly in charge of curriculum decision-making with no direction whatsoever from external agencies. Although that extreme position may have merit, it seems too distant from the history of education in this province to be within the realm of the possible, at least within the next decade or so. Nevertheless, to pursue this point, it must be stated that we see the history of curriculum development in the province as having undergone a gradual process of decentralization.

Three decades ago, for example, the educational system of the province was characterized by rigid prescriptions for curriculum associated with single textbooks, pervasive public examinations and an overtly inspectoral function by the Provincial Department of Education, that function being designed to ensure a minimal level of educational attainment in the schools and classrooms of Newfoundland and Labrador. The poorly qualified teaching force of the fifties and sixties, it seems, could not be trusted to design and implement educational programs, hence the use of such centralized control mechanisms as those described above and such supplementary devices as educational radio.

Within the more recent past, particularly since the implementation of the recommendations of the 1967 Royal Commission Report, the centralized control of the provincial Department of Education has gradually been loosening in a number of ways. At one time, for example, public examinations in Grades IX, X and XI were the order of the day, those examinations determining completely the final evaluation for each of the subject areas at each of these grade levels. Today public examinations exist for selected level three courses only and account for only 50 percent of the final evaluation in these courses. Also, formerly one person within the Department of Education made virtually all decisions with respect to curricular programs and texts for the province; little teacher input was expected or invited in those matters. Invariably, a single text was chosen for each course, that text, in effect, becoming the program. Today, curriculum committees, which include teachers and program coordinators are influential in the design of curricular documents and in the selection of texts. Similarly we have gradually moved from a reliance on a single text to the acceptance of the idea of alternatives from which teachers may select, and more recently to the development and implementation of courses in which teachers may chose their own materials.

There are many other indicators of this general trend toward decentralization including the creation of school districts in 1969 with staffs to provide supervision, a service previously provided exclusively by the provincial Department of Education.

We would argue that the process described above is the result of a number of factors, chief of which has been the rapid professionalization of the teaching force in the province. Within the 25-year span since the last Royal Commission Report, teacher qualifications have changed dramatically. For example, during the 1967-1968 school year, 61 percent of the teaching force had one year of university training or less and only 0.6 percent had attained Master's degrees. Today, by contrast, 89.6 percent of the teachers in the province have at least one degree and 15.2 percent have attained Master's degrees. Gone would seem to be the days when a poorly educated teaching force could be trusted to do anything other than to "pass on" curriculum which had been designed and developed elsewhere. Today, in many instances, teachers are as highly educated as those charged with supervisory and curriculum development functions, therefore the possibility exists for a higher degree of decentralization with more and more decision-making power resting with school districts, local schools, teacher teams and individual teachers. Assuming the validity of the foregoing argument, it can be envisioned that the traditional dichotomy between curriculum development and curriculum implementation and thus between 'curriculum' and 'instruction' will fade and those two functions will increasingly be situated within the sphere of influence of teachers.

## The Question of Types of Decisions and Levels of Decision-making

In the previous section a dichotomy was deliberately drawn between two competing views of the relationship between curriculum and instruction. If we conceive these two competing views as poles of a continuum, it becomes possible to envision a variety of intermediate possibilities. However, in order to come to grips with those possibilities, it is necessary to answer two sets of questions, the first, related to types of curricular/instructional decisions and the second related to the levels of authority at which those various decisions might appropriately be taken.

The first set of questions dealing with types of decisions, revolve around four key issues:

1. What are the purposes of education? i.e., what are we attempting to achieve within the school system?
2. What content should be selected to achieve those purposes? i.e., What should be taught?
3. What teaching/learning activities will be selected? i.e., How will the content be taught?

4. Does the educational system meet the purposes for which it is designed? i.e., How will the outcomes be evaluated?

The second set of questions is related to the level of authority at which those decisions are made. For purposes of illustration, we suggest three levels:

> The **macro societal level**, i.e., the provincial department of education and the legislature. Which of the foregoing four types of curricular/instruction questions should be answered at the provincial level, either as legislation or as Department of Education policy?
>
> The **micro societal level** represents local political structures such as school districts or school-level boards of managers. What types of curricular decisions will be reserved for the jurisdiction of local citizen groups?
>
> The **institutional/instructional level**, i.e., the school and the classroom. To what extent will the school and/or the teacher be free to make decisions with respect to purposes, content, teaching/learning activities and evaluation?

Given the foregoing discussions of change, principles of governance, curriculum and instruction and types and levels of decisions, it is now possible to conceptualize a variety of models for the delivery of professional services to schools. As Figure 1 demonstrates one can represent on a grid a variety of relationships between types of curricular and instructional decisions on one hand, and levels of decision-making on the other.

The following brief descriptions of sample models is an attempt to illustrate the variety of possibilities available. Each is delineated in sufficient detail to demonstrate how it is related to the previous discussions in this section.

A **centralized** model, (represented by the numeral '1' in Figure 1), is rooted in such assumptions as:

| | Levels of Decision-making | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Types of Decisions | Macro-Societal | Micro-Societal | Institutional |
| Purposes | (1) (3) | | (2) |
| Selection and organization of content | (1) | (3) | (2) |
| Selection and organization of learning experiences | (1) | | (3) (2) |
| Evaluation | (1) (3) | | (2) |

(1) - represents decisions within a highly centralized model.
(2) - represents decisions within a highly decentralized model.
(3) - represents decisions within one example of a mixed model.

**Figure 1. Curricular Decision-Making Schema**

(a) in order to ensure equity province-wide, it is necessary to retain decisions at the provincial level;

(b) curriculum development is conceived as involving decisions with respect to goals, content, teaching/learning activities and evaluation and rightly lies within the jurisdiction of the province whereas the role of the school and teacher is to implement educational programs as suggested by the provincial department of education. In other words, curriculum development and curriculum implementation are viewed as discretely different functions.

This model perhaps characterized the province several decades ago, however, some decisions have now devolved to the microsocietal and institutional levels.

If the Commission were to recommend such a highly centralized model as this, it could entail an expansion of the curriculum development section of the provincial Department of Education, the institution of an inspectoral staff, a heavy emphasis on standardized materials and reliance on provincial sets of assessment arrangements. Because the teacher's role would be one of implementation only, curriculum development expertise would be housed in the Department of Education. Support services would be those required to reproduce the intentions of the central agency, conceivably consisting of a staff of trained inspectors and/or supervisors whose job would be two-fold. First they would teach teachers the 'proper' way to implement provincial programs and second they would conduct periodic inspections to ensure faithful compliance with the established order. If intermediate level agencies at the microsocietal level existed, their role would conceivably be subordinate to the province and in many respects they probably would act as enforcement arms of the Department.

A **decentralized** model (represented by the numeral '2' in Figure 1) is based on a different set of assumptions:

(a) the distinction between curriculum and instruction is impractical or impossible;

(b) professional teaching staff can identify needs of pupils and build appropriate programs through the learning experiences they provide;

(c) curriculum and instruction decisions should be made at the school level - there is no compelling reason to ensure uniformity throughout the province, and

(d) the reasonable preferences of local communities should predominate.

As suggested in Figure 1, in a decentralized model all curricular and instructional decision-making would be undertaken at the institutional/instructional level. Schools and teachers would be responsible for deciding on goals, content, activities and the evaluation of pupils and programs. Teachers would be viewed as autonomous professionals whose work should be relatively unfettered by external requirements and centrally imposed mandates. This model is perhaps somewhat akin to the situation which existed in English primary schools, in particular, prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum in that country.

If the Commission were to recommend the adoption of such a decentralized model it could entail the elimination of school districts as they now exist, the introduction of local school committees, the need for teacher advisors among school staffs, a focus on strong instructional leadership on the part of school administrators, school-based priority-setting curriculum committees and so forth. External support services, which may be required by the school from time to time, could be sought from outside agencies such as professional organizations, the university, or teacher centers: The introduction of such a model in this province would undoubtedly be characterized as second-order change.

The numeral '3' represents one example of a mixed model. The particular type of **mixed** model depicted in Figure 1 is grounded in such assumptions as the following:

(a) there is a need at the provincial (macro-societal) level to establish minimum goals for programs,

(b) the method of attainment of those goals is best left to the preferences of local communities (micro-societal) level and schools (institutional level), and

(c) in order to ensure accountability, evaluations are conducted at the provincial level.

If such a model were to be adopted, one could envision a number of changes. First, the role of the Department of Education in curriculum would be primarily dedicated to the development of goal statements and measurement instruments necessary to assess attainment of those goals. Efforts at the micro-societal and institutional level would be devoted to the selection and organization of content, and the selection and organization of learning activities.

If such a move were to be undertaken, support would probably have to be provided to schools to assist them with new and different tasks. A number of possibilities for the provision of such support could be envisioned. For example, if school districts were to be retained it might be possible, initially, to have a teams of central office personnel work with administrators and teachers in order to help them assume their additional responsibilities in curriculum and instruction. Since this might be difficult for small rural boards to achieve, it may be necessary, perhaps even province-wide, but certainly in some areas, to combine the resources of various boards to provide regional support services of the type described.

The foregoing models have been presented to demonstrate the range of, rather than the totality of possibilities available for selection. They are meant to be illustrative rather than exhaustive. Nevertheless, perhaps sufficient detail has been provided to highlight the dilemma faced by the authors. Rather than delineating specific recommendations we would prefer to discuss possible scenarios/options with commission staff with a view to describing or recommending a system of support services which would mesh with the overall governance structure they envision. In the meantime, as a result of the data collected in this study, we feel we are in a position to make some general conclusions. Those are provided in the next section.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

In light of data presented earlier we would suggest that the following be considered by the Commission as it frames its set of final proposals:

1. Prior to the delineation of specific recommendations pertaining to the delivery of curriculum and instructional support services to schools and teachers, the Commission first must decide on the degree of centralization/decentralization it believes to be most appropriate and desirable. It must address the issue of the appropriate balance between provincial control, designed to protect the public good through the establishment of minimal standards of performance, on the one hand, and locally-vested autonomy designed to empower schools to build leadership and engage in self-initiated forms of professional capacity, on the other.

2. It is fairly clear that many teachers and principals do not view their superintendents as exercising strong leadership roles in the area of curriculum and instruction. Frequently they pointed to the 'managerial' and 'political' roles of the superintendent suggesting that these tend to monopolize the attention of the superintendent to the exclusion or neglect of curriculum/instructional issues.

   With respect to this finding, it should be noted that recent literature on effective schools, while highlighting the pivotal role of school principals, also points quite strongly to a reemerging instructional role for superintendents. Effective schools do not arise *ex nihilo*, they develop in a climate in which the superintendent focuses on the work of principals and teachers, setting goals, establishing standards, selecting and supervising the professional staff, fostering instructional improvement and so forth. In short, the instructional role is reemerging as a central function of the office of the superintendent. We would suggest that steps be undertaken to assist those superintendents, who wish to do so, to become more active in this sphere. The provision of appropriate professional development activities should be considered.

3. When compared to superintendents, assistant superintendents seem to be more heavily involved in curriculum and instruction. However, there is once again the perception, among principals and teachers in particular, that these roles are peripheral to their administrative function and hence they are only marginally effective in influencing what happens in classrooms. With respect to assistant superintendents, we would make a similar recommendation to that made regarding superintendents.

   In addition we find it rather surprising that although a number of respondents pointed to the role of assistant superintendents in the evaluation of teachers, we are left with the impression that such evaluation is frequently summative in nature and is not geared toward improvement. Although several teachers did cite change as a result of such sessions, most did not indicate such a result.

   Perhaps more surprising is the fact that not one school principal cited his/her evaluation by central office staff as being helpful. It would seem that if school district central office staff are to be effective in the area of instruction, one of the key levers would be the administrator evaluation process. School districts are constantly facing the dilemma of top-down versus bottom-up change. Obviously, if worthwhile change occurs because of the initiatives of school principals and staffs, the necessity of top-down approaches are lessened; however, in the absence of such school-based initiatives the district is left with little alternative but to instigate and one of the most obvious vehicles is through the evaluation of school principals.

4. In this province prior to the early 1970s most school districts employed generalist supervisors to engage in the work of helping teachers to improve instruction. Typically a small number of district office supervisors subdivided a district, usually geographically, and attempted to provide support services to schools and teacher. In 1972 that arrangement was supplanted by a scheme which in effect eliminated most generalist/generic (across disciplines) supervision and installed a core of program coordinators whose role, although not clearly defined, revolved around the development of programs in the various disciplines, hence a program coordinator for language arts, another for math, yet another for second languages and so on across the spectrum of school subjects. Although the purity of that system has dissolved somewhat (for example, there are now some coordinators who work with primary teachers in all subject areas and we also understand that at least one school district has an "elementary" coordinator while still another has initiated what appears to be a generalist supervision model in all its schools) the system of "program coordinators" is still relatively intact. Principals and teachers view that group primarily as being involved with and only interested in the "curriculum" of a single subject area with little interest in other subject areas and perhaps somewhat surprisingly as having little impact upon "instruction" in classrooms even within the subject area of their expertise. In other words the focus is seen as being placed on curriculum development (introduction of new programs and texts, the provision of supplementary materials, etc.) rather than on instructional improvement. Teachers and principals frequently pointed to lack of contact with coordinators, one-day workshops without follow-up, and lack of school and classroom visitation as shortcomings which explained the perceived lack of effectiveness of coordinators.

   We believe that although there is a need for subject specific specialists to work on program development, that work, depending on the degree of centralization desired, could probably be more efficiently accomplished by a smaller group of highly focused individuals perhaps working in regional centers whose task would be the development of programs and materials beyond the scope of local schools to undertake. For example the development of policy statements, analysis and piloting of programs, the development of assessment instruments, etc. are tasks which most small schools either because of lack of local expertise or because of pressures of time and resources are usually not prepared to undertake. If this recommendation were to be followed, a large number of salary units would still be available from those presently available to district offices throughout the province to provide "close-to-the-classroom" advisory personnel to teachers and schools. Given what seems to be a favorable reaction and acceptance of a generalist orientation to coordination at the primary level, we would recommend a similar approach at least through the elementary and perhaps through the intermediate school level. At the secondary level we would argue for a strengthened and enhanced role for department heads where they exist, combined with a mix of generalist and specialist coordination/supervision. Perhaps, for example, regional offices of the type described above could provide specialists services to all senior high schools in the area served with concentrated focus in those small schools which do not warrant department headships. In larger schools, department heads could be expected to assume a greater responsibility than now exists.

5. It has long been recognized in North America that the role of district office supervisors of curriculum and instruction is inadequately defined in both theory and practice. In a general sense their work is aimed at providing pupils with the best possible educational experience, particularly with high quality instruction. However, although the improvement of instruction, would seem to be the ultimate goal, it is not clear that the focus in the past, has been as much upon the improvement of instruction as upon the development of curricular programs and materials. The pervasive problem of role definition is still with us. The work undertaken by Strong (1991) with respect to the role of central office program coordinators suggests that their role includes a wide variety of specific task responsibilities and a definite lack of focus and direction in many cases. Even when a general focus does seem to exist, it is diluted by the inclusion of so many ancillary and even irrelevant tasks that there is much confusion and uncertainty with respect to the actual role. Our work would suggest that this lack of specificity in delineating the role of the program coordinator has led to several problems. First, the program coordinator is frequently saddled with responsibility for preparing reports, conducting research, dealing with staffing issues and so forth which are peripheral to and in some cases outside the scope of the main task. Second, in some cases, coordinators engage in line-type activities such as teacher evaluation which, in the eyes of teachers, can be viewed as contradictory to their espoused roles as teacher helpers.

   In light of the foregoing we recommend that clearly defined role descriptions be developed for all roles which remain or are instituted province-wide. In addition, we would recommend that local jurisdictions (school districts, school management committees, etc.) be encouraged to develop such role descriptions if authority is to be delegated to the local or intermediate level.

6. Perhaps the greatest degree of unanimity in all of our data centers on the fact that in this province there is an inadequate number of trained personnel to handle the many special learning difficulties presented by children. Furthermore, given the trend toward the practice of mainstreaming, teachers are increasingly being faced with children who have learning difficulties with which they are unprepared to cope. In response to the question about the effectiveness of specialist personnel, teachers and principals frequently pointed to the fact that they were either unavailable or that their caseloads were so heavy as to impede effectiveness.

   We would recommend that the Commission consider ways to make more specialist personnel available to teachers and pupils at the classroom level. Clearly such services can only be provided using some form of regional basis or through cooperation among school districts.

7. We have been particularly impressed by a small but articulate number of principals who have voiced the desire to be granted greater autonomy to be instructional leaders within their schools. Given the broad scope of modern school programs, it is, perhaps, almost impossible for any administrator to possess the subject specific expertise to be knowlegable and competent in all instructional areas of the school curriculum. However, we believe that much expertise exists on

many school staffs. Perhaps therefore, the most appropriate role for the principal is to act as an instructional coordinator - that is to provide the leadership that is necessary to coordinate the expertise that is available so that the overall instructional effectiveness of the school is enhanced. The foregoing notwithstanding, we would caution against the assumption that all principals are ready to assume that function. Moves in that direction would have to be accompanied by appropriate programs of professional development.

8. One other conclusion emanating from our consideration of the data is that it is difficult to design a common system of administration for the whole province. No one system will meet the needs of St. John's, Nain and Bonavista, hence the need for responsiveness and flexibility to meet local community imperatives and desires. Instead of any one uniform, provincially-mandated system, perhaps the opportunity for local initiatives would be more effective in the long-term. One flaw, inherent in such a decentralized approach is that some schools and communities may not respond to the challenge and as a result minimally acceptable educational standards may not be maintained. To avoid this problem it may be necessary to implement some form of province-wide system or set of requirements. However, we feel such a standardized set of expectations could lead to mediocrity unless it is accompanied by such provisions as incentives, waivers and other such choice-enhancing mechanisms designed to encouraging local boards, schools and teachers to strive for excellence with their pupils.

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Chapter 17

# SCHOOL-BASED ADMINISTRATION: CHANGING ROLES AND EXPECTATIONS

George Hickman
Dennis Treslan

> *While decisions and plans may be mandated from distant, centralized locations, they will inevitably be implemented at the building level. In a decentralized, participatory planning and decision making setting, constructive adaptations to otherwise uniform centralized policy are possible. Moreover, the accommodations occurring between strategic planning extending downward through the organization and operational planning extending upwards should result in a checks and balances system which promotes the greatest organizational efficiency [and effectiveness].* (McInerney, 1985)

## I. CHALLENGE

Delivery of educational services in the denominational educational system of this Province is achieved through interaction of three levels of administrative decision making -- province, school district and local school. The setting of educational policy and determination of general educational goals is accomplished through a duality of Church and State at the Provincial level. Implementation of this policy becomes a responsibility of local school districts which, in turn, rely on school- based administration to translate policy decisions into learning experiences for students. School effectiveness appears to be measured to a large extent by the degree to which student achievement is reflective of goal attainment as articulated in provincial policy. Clearly, the level of school effectiveness depends heavily on the ability of school-based administrators to fulfil their task area responsibilities.

School-based administrators occupy critical roles in the operation of any education system. This is particularly evident in the denominational system of Newfoundland, where tensions between Church and State are frequently manifested at the local school level. In fact, it can be further argued that one of the major barriers to being an effective school administrator is the disproportionate amount of time and energy administrators must devote to issues that might be labelled as "maintaining the system" -- barriers which leave little time for instructional leadership roles. To wit:

- There is evidence to suggest that the amount of time school-based administrators spend on such task areas as bussing concerns, maintenance problems, and dealing with disruptive influences translates into major barriers to effective delivery of programmes. There is room to argue that if principals and assistant principals were able to spend less time on such issues, school effectiveness could be improved because of increased time available for programme delivery matters.
- There is reason to debate whether the present provincial allocations of department head units is resulting in the most efficient and effective utilization of educational dollars in times of ever-increasing financial restraint.
- According to some experts, effective school management might only be possible with the appointment to schools of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education (e.g. an assistant principal with training in social work or with a business background).

Therefore, any serious endeavour to understand the dynamics of the Newfoundland education system must start with an examination of the effectiveness of current school-based administration, along with a determination to remove existing management obstacles.

## Study Focus

"It has long been recognized that the essential job of school administrators is to organize and manage resources efficiently and effectively so that school objectives can be successfully achieved" (Gorton and Schneider, 1991, p.55). This requires carrying out specific task area responsibilities frequently characterized by brevity, variety and fragmentation. It is commonly accepted that school management functions require school-based administrators -- principals, assistant principals and department heads -- to undertake a wide range of duties often to the point where administrators themselves do not spend their administrative time in a manner consistent with how they believe they should (Andrews and Hearne, 1988 - 89).

Routine, yet necessary, duties have compelled the principal to virtually become an efficient office manager who safeguards the building, maintains order, conducts meetings and keeps records. Ironically, assistant principals have been viewed as fulfilling more of an instructional leadership role -- dealing with student discipline, master schedule building, personnel evaluation and materials allocation. Department heads are typically assigned the responsibility of improving student achievement, assignment of teaching responsibilities and the transmission/interpretation of school goals. However, many high schools and virtually all elementary schools must operate without department head units, due to the reality of provincial regulations concerning school size and programme factors.

Effective delivery of educational services in the Newfoundland denominational education system depends on maximizing task area fulfilment by all school-based administrators. The perceived importance of these responsibilities relative to what goes on in the class room, to overall achievement levels in a school, to the administrative functions of that school and to central office affects the level of role incumbent satisfaction. Demands placed on the administrators' time and the resultant pressures to meet the needs of students and teachers impacts negatively on the ability of the school to operate effectively and efficiently. Other concerns pertaining to the effectiveness of school-based administration have begun to surface, and include: Have we changed the principal's role so much that principals no longer feel qualified? What can be done about the indisputable fact that principals are spending far too much time on "administrivia" as compared to the desired instructional leadership role? What are the linkages between department heads and programme co-ordinators? Are department heads (where available) the instructional link between school and school board? Do department heads service only high schools or what is their linkage with primary and elementary schools? If high schools need special administrative units for programme co-ordination, is there a similar need at the primary and elementary levels? Can accountability for school performance be tied to school-based administrative positions, namely, principals, assistant principals and department heads? Are positions currently being used in the most cost-effective way? Does every school need a principal, or might there be implications for the head teacher concept in smaller schools? Is there need for a return to the concept of coordinating principals?

To address these issues and others, this Study investigates, describes and analyzes the changing roles of those involved in school-based administration in this Province, namely, principals, assistant principals and department heads. More specifically, this Study addresses the following questions relative to the changing nature and complexity of school administration:

1. To what extent does the time and energy currently devoted to maintaining the school system serve as a barrier to effective school management?

2. Relative to the administrative task areas of general school management, personnel services, instructional leadership, school-community relations and management of professional activities,

about how much time should be spent on average by school administrators in a typical school year?

3. Has the role significance of school administrators relative to the five task areas identified changed in the last five years?

4. What role importance do school administrators attach to their performance in the five administrative task areas identified?

5. How satisfied are administrators with their present role performance in each of the administrative task areas identified?

6. What innovative efforts would school administrators like to see undertaken to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration?

7. Based upon an analysis of the data, review of the literature, examination of school-based administration trends on the national and international scenes and the researchers' own perceptions, what recommendations can be offered for improvement?

Within the context of the Newfoundland denominational system, the effectiveness of programme delivery is crucial to attainment of system goals. The local school serves as a focal point in this exercise, where the expectations of local educators and community converge on the perceived quality of education acquired by students. Given that local school administrators play a major role in the management of programme delivery, any attempt to alter or otherwise change this dimension of the Newfoundland education system must take into consideration principals', assistant principals' and department heads' perceptions of the adequacy of school-based administrative practice. While it is not the focus of this Study, cognizance must be taken of the role of the school board and central office personnel within the context of the provincial system. Therefore, this Study should hold significance for the following individuals and/or groups:

1. School-based administrators -- principals, assistant principals and department heads -- concerned with the adequacy/effectiveness and efficiency of their current administrative role responsibilities.

2. Individuals interested in further understanding the role of school-based administration within the context of effective schools.

3. Change agents given the responsibility for recommending alterations to the delivery system in Newfoundland education.

4. Researchers in educational administration who wish to measure the extent to which current school-based administrative activity is consistent with what is suggested by the literature.

5. Individuals involved with "futures forecasting" in Newfoundland education.

6. Principals and assistant principals who wish to have an opportunity to inform the Royal Commission of the major changes they would recommend to improve the effectiveness of school-based administration in Newfoundland schools.

In addition to these individuals and/or groups, it is hoped that this study might also provide a working data base from which the following information can be derived:

1. The extent to which principals and assistant principals are satisfied with their current instructional leadership role.

2. The extent to which principals and assistant principals perceive they are part of the overall administration of their respective districts and schools.

3. The linkage between the three administrative roles identified herein.

4. The extent to which time and energy currently devoted to maintaining the school/system serves as a barrier to otherwise effective instructional leadership.

5. Better understanding of the role of principal, assistant principal and department head in

Newfoundland and Labrador schools and what might be done to make this critical dimension of school operation more effective.

**Towards a Conceptual Framework**

Traditionally, the management of school organizations has been entrusted to one individual, the principal, whose major duty has been to ensure that all subordinates fulfil their role responsibilities. In this setting, administrators administered, teachers taught and students learned! This sterile and somewhat naive view of school management has created role stereotypes which have recently proved to be grossly inaccurate. For example, the principal's time was viewed (and often accurately so) as being devoted mainly to clerical, administrative and other non-instructional duties. The assistant principal's role was considered to be much more teacher and student oriented, acting in many instances as an efficiency expert. The department head's role was largely non-existent. In many schools the principal fulfilled the role of principal-teacher as an added responsibility.

Modern school organization, however, provides a dramatic departure from this classical management image. Drawing extensively on systems theory and human relations/behaviourist writers, contemporary school- based administration operates much more from a participative management approach, characterized by school-level planning and decision making linked to professional accountability (Keith and Girling, 1991). Here the role responsibilities of school administrators -- principals, assistant principals and department heads -- encompass that of facilitator, organizer, listener/communicator, resource person and organizational leader. Within this collegial model, teachers and administrators work together to improve the quality of the work environment, and attempt to create conditions conducive to more effective teaching and learning, and identifying and changing those aspects of the administrative process viewed as inimical to quality performance.

Participatory management is closely allied with school effectiveness which, in turn, has given rise to one of the most significant developments in educational management thought, namely, the management team concept. Inherent in this concept are three crucial themes referred to as democratic administration, participatory management and shared decision making. The term democratic administration suggests that members of an organization should somehow be involved in the management of that organization. Participatory management refers to the idea of allowing others to share in the leadership exercise. Shared decision making refers to the actual involvement of others in the educational decision making steps which include problem solving and definition, information processing, identifying alternative solutions, forecasting probable consequences of each alternative, evaluating alternatives, selecting one preferred solution and implementing and evaluating the decision. Each of these terms alludes to leadership by consensus -- a mode of management in which all school based administrators, or their representatives, analyze the organizational tasks of goal setting, decision making, communicating, planning, organizing, co-ordinating and evaluating (Wynn and Guditus, 1984, p.23).

Operationalization of leadership by consensus occurs in the form of an administrative team effort where a group of people work together co-operatively rather than unilaterally to achieve a common goal. According to Gorton and Schneider (1991) the main goals of an administrative team should be to develop school policies and procedures, solve common problems and in general to improve education in schools by utilizing the collective talents and interests of team members. This concept is rooted in the assumption that administrative decision making should be a joint effort rather than the responsibility of one individual such as the principal. Such a team approach becomes a vehicle for facilitating school- based management, a process deriving from the fact that individual schools are fundamental decision making units within a local school district.

An administrative team approach to school management can provide a modus operandi for maximizing the decision making process so as to effectively and efficiently carry out the administrative functions associated with local school management. Goal development, programme implementation and co-ordination, marshalling resources, public relations and programme evaluation call for effective decision making by all administrators -- principals, assistant principals and department heads. Through role clarification and improved role linkage, barriers to the administrative task area outcomes of these decisions may be greatly reduced.

It is generally recognized that administrative decision making is central to school governance. Within this process a number of interacting components combine to form an output which can be used to guide the actions of individuals and schools alike. Of considerable importance is the fact that decision making is an action-oriented phenomenon, an aspect of administration involving thinking which results in a choice among alternative courses of action (Griffiths, 1958). The roles fulfilled by principals, assistant principals and department heads in this exercise frequently involve an exchange of power and influence. The administrative team approach to school management could enable realization of a decision making action which emphasizes considerable sharing throughout the cycle components (Hoy and Miskel, 1987). This would appear to be in complete accord with a basic tenet of effective school administration in that people who will be affected by decisions should have input into the decision making process.

Figure 1 depicts the composition of a typical administrative team operation within the local school. Normally, this team would consist of the principal, assistant principal and department heads (where available). When there are no department heads such as in small high schools and primary/elementary settings, other select individuals such as teachers could comprise a part of this membership category.

Ideally, if this administrative team is to operate effectively, each member must be knowledgeable regarding the responsibilities and roles of other members and how all team members can help each other by working co-operatively. Clearly, the principals' area of primary responsibility and accountability, although generally well understood, needs to be clarified. While it may be necessary for principals to exercise authority on occasion, their main role should be that of facilitator and resource person.

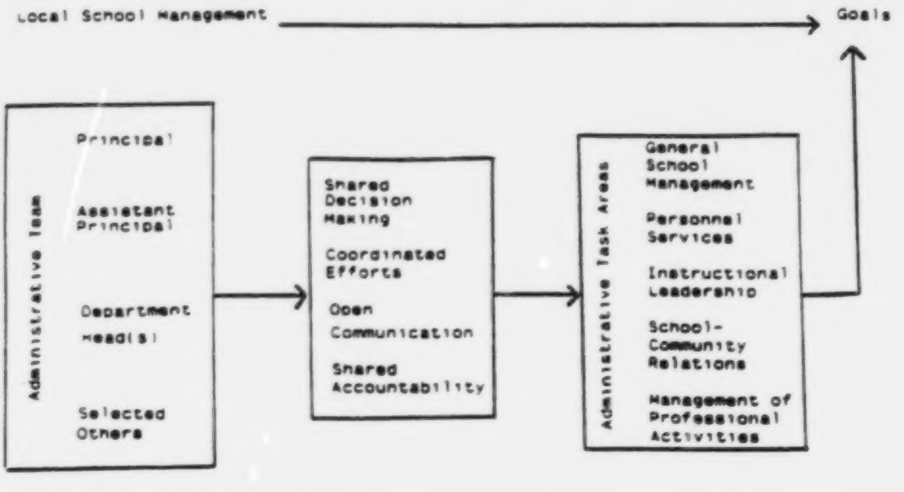

Local School Management
Goals
Administrative Team
Principal
Assistant Principal
Department Head(s)
Selected Others
Shared Decision Making
Coordinated Efforts
Open Communication
Shared Accountability
Administrative Task Areas
General School Management
Personnel Services
Instructional Leadership
School-Community Relations
Management of Professional Activities

Figure 1: Effective school management -- a team concept

Assistant principals must have responsibilities assigned other than the usual task of administering student discipline and attendance problems. At the elementary and high school levels, these responsibilities might include orienting new teachers, selecting text books, administering public relations programmes, planning teacher in-service, conducting student orientation, developing the school calendar, administering special education programmes, developing curriculum and helping decide school policy. In other words, assistant principals must be given more responsibility than what is currently assigned to them. Gorton (1987) suggests that in order to maximize assistant principals' leadership contributions, principals should expand the role to include activities beyond student discipline and attendance, become an advocate for the position of assistant principal and stress its worth, increase the rewards associated with the position and facilitate professional growth in this role.

Another important member of the administrative team at the local school level is the department head. Typically, this role has been created in response to increases in the managerial and supervisory functions of the school. Similar to the role and responsibilities of the assistant principal, those of the department head are no more or less than the principal defines them to be. Often referred to as a position of instructional leadership, in practice this role has frequently been grounded in the quicksand of administrative trivia and handicapped by inadequate release time to carry out instructional improvement activities. Since this role is vital to the success of a school- based administrative team, the nature of this position must be clearly defined and sufficient release time provided to allow department heads to reasonably carry out their leadership responsibilities. Meaningful job descriptions must be developed and in-service training provided to help department heads acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to function as leaders. The regulations which currently allow only for the allocation of department head units to high schools also needs to be re-examined. The administrative team management approach at the local school level can be a valuable mechanism for facilitating co-operation among administrators and teachers, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of school-based administration. Whether that potential is realized or not depends in large measure on the extent to which the concept is fully implemented in practice, and the degree to which all members of this team strive to work together co-operatively in a spirit of mutual trust and confidence.

Through shared decision making, co-ordination of administrative effort, open communication and shared accountability the administrative team approach to school-based administration can serve as a viable means of revitalizing the roles of principal, assistant principal and department head. Utilizing this management approach to fulfil the responsibilities of identified administrative task areas should allow for more effective attainment of school goals, creating in the process more effective schools.

## Methodological Considerations

A number of procedures were followed to obtain data from which conclusions and recommendations were evolved to examine the changing roles and expectations of school-based administrators. To begin with, Commission staff developed an anecdotal provincial profile of demands placed on principals. This information was adopted as a relatively accurate assessment of issues being confronted by Newfoundland principals in the context of their current role responsibilities. An overview of this information is provided later in this Report.

An exploratory meeting was held on March 15, 1991 with the Executive of the School Administrators' Council of the Newfoundland Teachers' Association. The purpose of this meeting was to explain this project to those present and to solicit their co-operation in serving as an instrument vetting agency at this stage of the Study. Full co-operation was offered and many helpful suggestions were made regarding the composition of a questionnaire which would be developed to solicit information from school-based administrators, namely principals and assistant principals.

Mr. Andrew Okaeme, a graduate student in educational administration, was asked to undertake a computer assisted library search of material bearing on that dimension of school system management associated with school-based administration. This information was considered vital to development of an instrument for obtaining role data from principals and assistant principals, and for discerning the role of department heads.

Acting on information received from these undertakings, a decision was taken to construct an instrument to obtain information from a stratified random sample of principals and assistant principals currently occupying school management positions in Newfoundland and Labrador schools. Table 1 depicts the size rationale used to determine this administrative sample. The instrument was in the form of a questionnaire which was mailed to selected participants in this Study.

Table 1 Size rationale for stratified random sample of principals and assistant principals

| | School Type | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| School System | Elementary *(K-6)* | Secondary *(7-12)* | All-Grade | Total |
| Principals | | | | |
| Integrated | 121 (18) | 75 (12) | 105 (16) | 301 (46) |
| Roman Catholic | 58 ( 9) | 42 ( 7) | 75 (11) | 175 (27) |
| Pentecostal | 19 ( 3) | 9 ( 1) | 14 ( 2) | 43 ( 6) |
| SDA | 2 ( 0) | 1 ( 0) | 4 ( 1) | 7 ( 1) |
| N = | 200 (30) | 127 (20) | 198 (30) | 525 (80) |
| Assistant Principals | | | | |
| Integrated | 54 ( 8) | 69 (11) | 58 ( 9) | 181 (28) |
| Roman Catholic | 27 ( 4) | 43 ( 7) | 55 ( 9) | 125 (20) |
| Pentecostal | 5 ( 1) | 9 ( 1) | 2 ( 0) | 16 ( 2) |
| SDA | 0 ( 0) | 0 ( 0) | 0 ( 0) | 0 ( 0) |
| N = | 86 (13) | 121 (19) | 115 (18) | 322 (50) |

The questionnaire, consisting of three major sections, was responded to by both principals and assistant principals. Section I solicited demographic information on the role occupant. Information concerning the role setting in which these individuals carried out their responsibilities was solicited in Section II. Section III focused on administrative role responsibilities, with an emphasis on: amount of time spent in carrying out administrative task area responsibilities; perceived change in the role significance of school administrators relative to selected task areas in the last five years; perceived importance of task areas to current administrative roles; satisfaction with present role performance and respondents' opinions concerning both existing and potential change to administrative role responsibilities and practice. The questionnaire was vetted through the Executive of the School Administrators' Council at a meeting held on April 8, 1991, and was modified to reflect input from that meeting.

Questionnaires were mailed to a 15 percent sample of Newfoundland principals and assistant principals on April 12, 1991. Completed questionnaires were returned by May 3, 1991. Table 2 reveals the response rate for this part of the Study.

Table 2 Return rate from questionnaire mail out

| Administative Role | Mail Out<br>*f* | Return<br>*f* | Response<br>% |
|---|---|---|---|
| Principals | 80 | 57 | 71.3 |
| Assistant Principals | 50 | 39 | 78.0 |
| N = | 130 | 96 | 73.8 |

The researchers met with a selected group of department heads from St. John's area schools on April 11, 1991. The purpose of this meeting was to discuss the Study with these individuals and to discuss perceptions of their role responsibilities. Nine department heads attended this meeting and it was decided that a future meeting would be called for June 12, 1991. Discussion at the initial meeting focused on two items: (1) How do you perceive your role as department head? and (2) What suggestions can you offer for changes to the department head role?

A second meeting with department heads took place on June 12, 1991. At this meeting further discussion was focused on the role of department head as part of school-based administration in Newfoundland schools. A particular emphasis was placed on ways in which this role could be made more effective to the mutual benefit of role incumbent and the particular school organization.

To obtain a more accurate perspective of innovative school- based administration at the school level, a request for information was also forwarded to selected school jurisdictions across Canada and the United States. Specific information was sought on the following concerns:

1. The extent to which time and energy devoted to maintaining the school system serves as a barrier to instructional leadership roles.
2. The actual and preferred role of principals, assistant principals and department heads in fund raising efforts, bussing concerns, maintenance problems, dealing with disruptive influences, etc.
3. The existing and/or ideal rationale for release time from teaching for principals, assistant principals and department heads (where applicable).
4. The desirability of appointment to schools of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education.
5. Any innovative efforts undertaken by your school jurisdiction to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration.
6. Any attempts undertaken by your jurisdiction to assess the critical role of school-based administrators in the performance of your education system.

A final step in the methodology employed for this Study consisted of examining a number of Commission Briefs/Submissions relating to school-based administration in Newfoundland and Labrador schools. These documents were analyzed relative to the five administrative task areas identified earlier in this Study.

### Overview

This section has provided a general overview of this Study by focusing on the specific nature of the problem addressed, the educational significance of school-based administration and a conceptual framework/rationale for an administrative team comprised of principals, assistant principals and department heads in the effective management of local schools. In addition, the specific methodology employed in this Study has been described.

Section II focuses on relevant literature, research and performance associated with school-based administration, specifically the principal, assistant principal and department head roles. The concept of school improvement is addressed through the literature and research associated with educational change, effective schools and instructional leadership. A review of school-based administration in Canada and the United States is addressed, along with a review of related Commission briefs/submissions.

Section III presents the findings from a questionnaire distributed to a sample of principals and assistant principals in this Study. The section is divided into two parts. The first part provides demographic information relative to the person and the setting. The second part presents a profile of perceived administrative practice, both current and preferred.

Section IV provides the researchers' profile of preferred administrative practice relative to three school-based administrative roles -- principals, assistant principals and department heads. Discussion of Study findings and the development of recommendations for enhancing school-based administration are presented according to the questions posed in the Study Focus.

## II. RELEVANT LITERATURE, RESEARCH AND PERFORMANCE

This section briefly examines literature and research pertaining to effective management of schools. To assist in this endeavour, the section is comprised of four major sections. Section one addresses the nature of school-based administration with an emphasis on leadership role responsibilities, models/strategies of school-based administration and new roles for educational leaders. Section two reviews the concept of school improvement with a focus on concept understanding and an overview of effective schools. Section three provides evidence of current school-based administrative practice in a sample of Canadian and American jurisdictions, while Section four presents a summary of briefs and/or submissions received by this Royal Commission relative to the matter of school-based administration.

### School-based Administration

Goal proposals and public expectations are two powerful forces impacting on the role of Newfoundland schools. Administrators have to recognize that when students now attending these schools become adults, they must possess the necessary skills and knowledge to confront circumstances and problems quite different from those faced by adults today. If the amount of change in the last two decades is any indication, the type of society facing individuals and groups in the twenty-first century will be much different from that of the twentieth century. Therefore, if one of the functions of our schools is to prepare students for the kind of world in which they will be living as adults, effective delivery of educational experiences becomes crucial to the denominational system of education.

School administrators must not look on administration as an end in itself, but as a means to an end. That end is represented by the goals and objectives, which schools are trying to achieve. These goals and objectives (referred to as the Aims and Objectives of Education for Newfoundland and Labrador) serve as a rudder on the educational ship of which administrators function as captains. Not only must every administrator be knowledgeable about these goals and objectives but they must also develop vision and convictions regarding the most effective means for the delivery of educational services at the local school level.

Education and schools in this Province are not what they were ten to twenty years ago. Appropriate authorities at the Provincial level need to understand this fact and accept the reality that the mandate of school administrators has ceased to be purely education and instruction. Schools are rapidly assuming the roles of mini-societies with concomitant social, health and other problems. More than ever before, the Churchillian demand, "Give us the tools and we will finish the job" can and must be applied to local school management. Schools require more physiologists, psychiatrists, counsellors, nurses, business administrators and qualified maintenance personnel. Otherwise, education will continue to suffer. Students will not receive the instruction which they need and to which they have a right. Future graduates will not be as competent as expected and our education investment will not reap the dividends to which we are entitled and which must be received.

Against this reality backdrop the effective management of local schools is crucial in the delivery of educational services to children of this Province. Maximizing the role effectiveness of principals, assistant principals and department heads must become a system priority if school-based administration is to achieve the goal ascribed to it.

## Leadership Role Responsibilities

The literature saliently delineates the critical role occupied by the principalship in Canadian schools. In every case the principal is primarily viewed as an administrator and manager (Ludlow, 1968). As early as 1927, Cubberley noted that clerical and administrative duties are allowed to so monopolize the principal's time that the central office in any school district can usually depend upon finding this person at work in the office at any time of day. Even now, the role of the principal has not changed dramatically. In compliance with Cubberley's observation, a major role responsibility for today's principal is still concerned mainly with non-instructional activities. Whether principals are expected to be primarily an instructional leader or managers of people and things is often dictated by various factors, particularly the size of the school. The instructional leadership emphasis prevalent in much of the literature seems to create a human face on this particular dimension of school-based administration. However, it is also probably intended to create self-respect within this professional group itself. The reality of the situation is that central administrators and boards of education do in fact reward and reinforce the well-managed and efficiently operated school.

The efficient operation of schools as communities places a heavy demand on the managerial competency of educational leaders, particularly the principal, assistant principal and to a lesser extent department heads. There is an abundance of information on the perceived/traditional/actual leadership responsibilities in a school system. Anderson (1986/1987) concludes that teachers perceive principals, assistant principals and department heads as performing different instructional functions within schools. It is commonly accepted that a job analysis of management functions required of school administrators comprises hundreds of duties. The types of duties emphasized in job descriptions tend to make the school administrator alert to problems of routine work which centre around the administrative office. These duties virtually compel the principal to become an efficient office manager who safeguards the building, maintains order, conducts fire drills, regulates school policy, requisitions supplies, keeps school records, conducts P.T.A. meetings and attends staff meetings.

A further trend in school-based administration is for the assistant principal to perform a major role in the instructional leadership function (Anderson, 1986/1987). Other major role responsibilities pertain to student discipline, master schedule building, personnel evaluation and materials allocation.

While the department head role is perceived to involve allocation responsibilities (personnel and material) along with the transmission and interpretation of school goals, both Anderson (1986/1987) and Kellogg (1984) also point out the expectations held for the department head role. Ranking first among these expectations is the responsibility for this administrative role to improve student achievement.

## Models/Strategies of School-Based Administration

For various reasons, traditional concepts of leader effectiveness along with those derived from scientific management theory and those based on satisfying different groups failed to place sufficient emphasis on instructional improvement. In recent years a number of efforts have been made to focus on key leadership behaviours, student-outcome-based assessment and situational competence as indicators of leadership effectiveness in local school administration. If recent literature on the principalship is accurate, the role can be characterized by two trends -- growing ambiguity and complexity. In an effort to provide some guidelines to help resolve these problems, rules, regulations and standard operating procedures are frequently developed. These frequently fail since a proliferation of rules, regulations and procedures merely exacerbate the complexity of the situation. Clearly, in most schools it is impossible for the principal to function without delegating many of his/her responsibilities. This does not mean that responsibilities are abrogated, only that other administrators and/or staff members are charged with shared responsibilities.

According to Duke (1987), effectiveness is at least partly a function of both technical skill and opportunities to exercise that skill. Besides principals, assistant principals and department heads, there are other school leaders who can be called upon to assist in achieving administrative effectiveness. These include teachers and a variety of central office staff. In this regard, differentiated staffing can serve as an excellent means of creating teacher-leadership opportunities and providing assistance to local school principals.

Effective school management derives from effective leadership activities on the part of school administrators. Hallinger (1983) states that instructional management is comprised of three key dimensions -- mission definition, management of curriculum and instruction, and school climate promotion. Interestingly, there are district/school policies and procedures which can be operationalized to promote shared leadership resulting in effective instructional management. These include clear expectations on the part of the superintendent that principals are to be extensively involved in instructional leadership activities; principals assigned assistance (usually an assistant principal) to relieve them of non-instructional duties; in-service training in instructional strategies provided for teachers and administrators; training provided for principals in supervision and teacher evaluation, and principals becoming involved in the process of curriculum realignment. Clearly, the key to this form of school-based administration lies in assistance being provided to the principal thereby enabling him/her to devote time and energy to instructional related matters.

The major challenge for school principals, according to Duke (1987), is to engage other administrators and teachers in collective activity without devaluing their inclination to see themselves as helping professionals who equate success with assisting individual students. Meaningful school experiences ultimately derive both from commitment to collective action and devotion to individual accomplishment.

The success of school organization is directly dependent on the effective use of human resources. In other words, the real test of our abilities as leaders and managers is how effectively we can establish and maintain our school (human) organization. What is needed is an approach to leadership and management that is both conceptually sound and practical in application -- situational leadership.

Hershey and Blanchard (1988) state that situational leadership provides a vehicle for dealing with performance problems in a rational way that focuses on the key issues involved. Although the unilaterality of the principal's management responsibilities remain a top priority, the focus in situational approaches to leadership is on observed behaviour, that is, on the behaviour of the leader (principal) and his/her group (staff) and various situations (such as school management). With this emphasis on behaviour and environment, more encouragement can be given to training individuals in adapting styles of leadership behaviour to varying situations. It is believed that most people can increase their leadership role effectiveness through education, training and development.

Applied to the management of local schools, this approach has significant implications for administrative roles. Focusing on the three main components of the leadership process -- leader, follower and situation -- situational leadership enables an examination of the interplay among these variables in order to find causal relationships leading to predictability of behaviour. Adherence to situational leadership requires a principal to behave in a flexible manner, to diagnose the leadership style appropriate to the situation and to be able to apply the appropriate leadership model. Whereas this leadership emphasis might not radically alter the task areas of school-based administration, at the very least it can strengthen the need for modifying the roles of principals, assistant principals and department heads to attain more effective and satisfying local school management.

During a school year, administrators perform a number of different roles. Acting at one point as instructional leaders, school-based administrators may at another point serve as conflict mediators, while performing different roles at still other times. Naturally, a decision to adopt a particular role is influenced by the administrator's own needs and attitudes, expectations of important others and various social factors. Yet, for a school administrator to function effectively in the role of manager, instructional leader, disciplinarian, human relations facilitator, evaluator and conflict mediator -- often simultaneously -- is a virtual impossibility. What is required is a team approach where a group of people work together co-operatively rather than unilaterally to achieve a common goal.

Gorton and Schneider (1991) state that the potential advantages of co-operatively pooling human resources to achieve school and district objectives strongly support the need to organize an administrative team where feasible. This administrative team is particularly important as a means of facilitating school-based management -- a concept based on the assumption that the individual school is the fundamental decision making unit within the district.

An administrative team represents a means of establishing smooth lines of organization and communication, common agreements and definite patterns of mutuality among administrators. There are two primary parties involved in the leadership of a school, namely, the school board whose responsibility is policy making, and the administrative team whose major responsibilities include advising the school board and implementation of board policy. A close, harmonious working relationship between these two parties is obviously vital to the successful operation of a school.

An effective administrative team has a vital leadership function to perform. It provides a collective means of strengthening school leadership by giving individual administrators needed assistance, opportunities and job satisfaction. Utilizing the strengths of instructional management and situational leadership, the administrative team approach is potentially a valuable mechanism for facilitating co-operation among administrators, teachers and other staff members, and for effective harnessing of their individual interests and talents. To this end, Barth (1988) notes, "If the vision of shared leadership helps teachers and principals respond less randomly and more coherently and co-operatively to the thousands of situations they face every day in the school, it may matter less whether the schools become communities of leaders than they are heading in the right direction" (p.642).

## New Roles For Educational Leaders

A major portion of an administrator's time is spent in communication with others. Therefore, in a broad sense administrative behaviour is communicative behaviour. Since the principal is a key link in many communications systems making up the school environment, it is important that these administrators understand the effect that their behaviour has on others. In fact, the principalship has always been a position of considerable prestige. Although much of the principal's time in recent years has been spent in maintaining the organization, it is now obvious that the concept of shared decision making relative to delivery of educational services must become a priority in school management. Only in this manner can adequate attention be placed on the critical areas of staff relations, released time/in-service, and public relations.

School principals, assistant principals and department heads need to focus on the improvement of human relations, administrative routine and instructional leadership if school goals are to be effectively achieved. The relationship between the local school and its various publics -- parents, central office and wider school community -- necessitates the development of a team effort if school programmes are to meet their objectives. Whereas schools of the past, with their emphasis on college preparation, found little need for citizen involvement, today's schools are more comprehensive and the administrative roles therein have become more political as attempts are made to make the curriculum more relevant and reflective of current thinking. Thus, school-based administration must shift from mere administrative routines to an emphasis on such thrusts as resource integration and management of collaborative structure. Clearly, school-based administration of necessity has had to gravitate from the world of unilaterality to the reality of team effort. After all, a political rather than a military style more appropriately describe the administrative role in the Year 2000. Principals will still be held accountable for what happens in their schools, but they will accomplish their tasks through advising, consulting, soothing, articulating problems and devising alternative shared leadership strategies (Aiela, 1988).

## The Concept of School Improvement

### Understanding the Term

The concept of school improvement involves change; it is planned educational change (Clarke, 1990). In the numerous studies on what constitutes effective change resulting in overall school improvement, Holly (1990), reflecting on the work of Banathy (1988), states:

> ...in recent times there have been three waves of educational reform. The first wave of reform entailed 'doing the same but more of it'; the second wave meant doing the same but doing it better; and the third wave involved the restructuring and redesign of the educational system. It could be argued that the first wave represents the school effectiveness movement, the second wave the drive towards linking it (school effectiveness) with school improvement, and the third wave the pursuit of future excellence. (p.195)

It appears from the literature that many school improvement projects begin as 'first wave' attempts through the application of effective schools characteristics. Then they move into the second wave process often termed School Growth Plans (Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's, 1990; Halton Board of Education, 1990) and reach the stage where third wave pursuit of excellence is evident.

In the Halton Board of Education's school improvement initiative, three guiding principles were adopted:

- school-based planning, which "directs our energies and resources through co-operative planning to support and encourage school-based decision making that is consistent with community and Board expectations".

- an emphasis on instruction to support teachers in the teaching-learning process and assist them to develop expertise in four areas: implementation of curriculum; classroom management; instructional skills and instructional strategies.

- staff resources to provide quality instruction through the continuation of a policy to "attract, select, develop and retain the highest calibre staff" (Fink and Stoll, 1991).

However, meaningful school improvement just "doesn't happen by itself" (Cox, 1983, p.10). Considerable time, effort and resources must be expended on staff development initiatives simply because people are involved and the ultimate success of the project will depend upon people who occupy "many different roles" (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982b, p.158). In essence, school improvement can be a complicated process because it requires people in positions of responsibility to think and behave differently -- from policy makers and deliverers to teacher supporters and providers of service. School improvement implies collegial working relationships among and between all levels of the school system in the development and implementation of planned educational change. Such a paradigm shift from the top-down management approach requires not only new ways of thinking, but it also requires different skills. "The need to develop such skills as collaboration, conflict resolution, negotiation and to learn unfamiliar instructional strategies such as concept development, co-operative group learning or computer-assisted instruction ..." becomes of paramount importance in the school improvement process (Fink and Stoll, 1991, p.10). Any school improvement plan must retain cognizance of the interaction which occurs among its various players, and as Clarke (1990), drawing from the work of Miles and Ekholm (1985) indicates, this is illustrated in Figure 2.

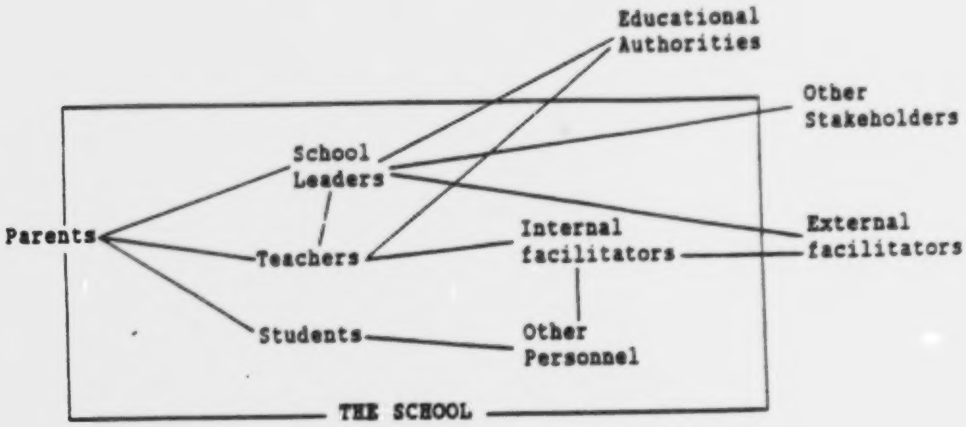


Figure 2: Participants in local school improvement.
Cited in W.G. van Velzen, M.B. Miles, M. Ekholm, U. Hameyer, & D. Robin, *Making School Improvement Work: A Conceptual Guide to Practice* (p. 146).

Amid the ever-increasing demand for greater accountability in education despite the pressures of declining enrolments, financial cut-backs and increasing costs, is the perceived need for educational change. Leading organized attempts at the change phenomenon is a myriad of designs for school improvement/school effectiveness. The remainder of this section presents a brief overview of that concept. It is included in this Study to assist the researchers in their attempts to extrapolate a set of recommendations which may be of assistance to the Royal Commission in conceptualizing its final Report.

According to Edmonds (1982) school improvement is a "...systematic formal evaluation of the presence or absence, strength or weakness, of each of the correlates of school effectiveness..." (p.15). Leithwood's (1986) perception of school effectiveness is that of "a process of gap reduction, i.e. a means of reducing the gap between perceived outcomes, states or dispositions which are valued for students (and presumably by students, at some point) and those outcomes students are presently achieving" (p.2). Others (Leithwood and Fullan, 1984; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982a; and Neale et al, 1981; and Loucks-Horsley and Hergert, 1985) share the idea of gap reduction, but view the concept of school improvement in a broader sense. Their view of school improvement is one which is able to reduce the gap between "...our school as it is now and our school as we'd like it to be" (p.xii).

There is no doubt that school improvement is directed towards educational change which is deliberately planned and carried out in a systematic manner. As Mullaney (1983) states, planned change is "...a deliberate attempt to improve existing conditions through the adoption of new products, new technologies or new ideas" (p.54). One framework for planned change is envisaged by Fullan (1985) as a process of interaction between two types of variables: organizational factors and process factors. This conceptualization is depicted in Figure 3.

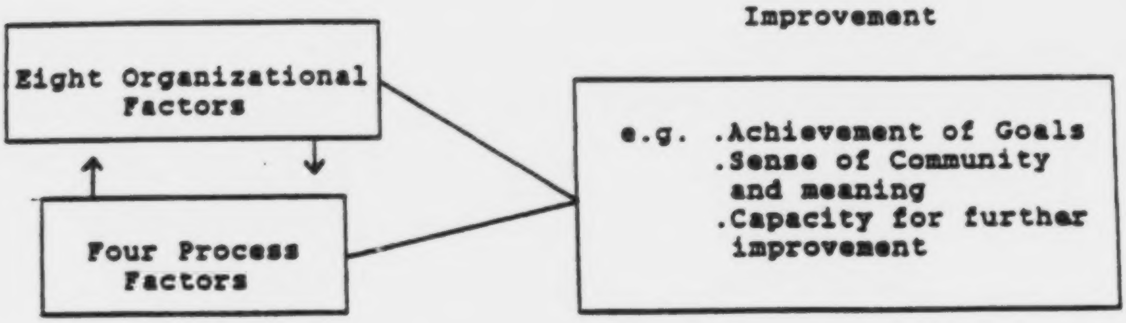

Improvement
Eight Organizational Factors
Four Process Factors
e.g. .Achievement of Goals
.Sense of Community and meaning
.Capacity for further improvement

Figure 3: The school improvement process.
Cited in M. Fullan. Change processes and strategies at the local level. *The Elementary School Journal*, *85*, 400.

According to Fullan (1985, p.404), the "eight organization factors, supported and fuelled by the four process variables, produce school improvement". Clarke (1990), citing Fullan, lists the eight organizational factors as:

1. Instructionally focused leadership at the school level
2. District support
3. Emphasis on curriculum and instruction (e.g., maximizing academic learning)
4. Clear goals and high expectations for students
5. A system for monitoring performance and achievement
6. Ongoing staff development
7. Parental involvement and support
8. Orderly and secure climate

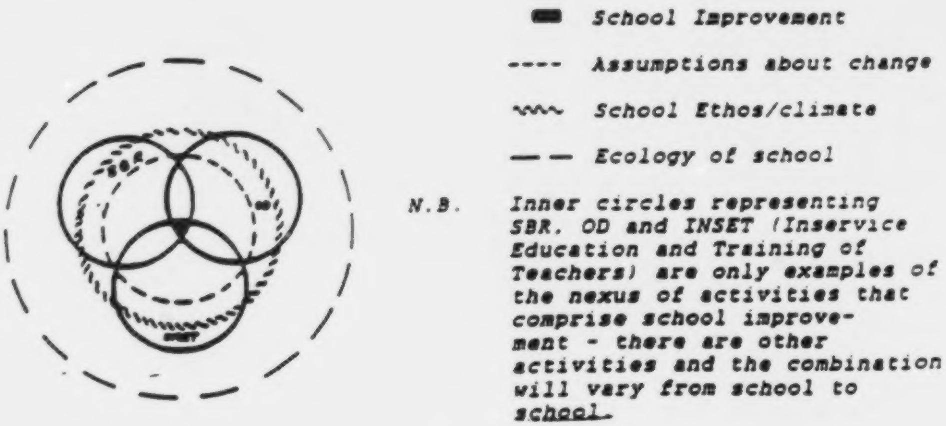
The four process factors are:

1. A feel for the improvement process on the part of leadership
2. A guiding value system
3. Intense interaction and communication
4. Collaborative planning and implementation

Hopkins (1985) offers the following perception of what constitutes school improvement:

> If school improvement is used as a generic term, then it can be regarded as constituted by a set of differing activities (e.g. school-based in-service, SBR [School-Based Review], organizational development [OD], school-based curriculum development, participatory decision making, etc.), each of which are under pinned by a set of assumptions about change.... (p.13).

He further depicts his idea of school improvement in Figure 4.



N.B. Inner circles representing SBR, OD and INSET (Inservice Education and Training of Teachers) are only examples of the nexus of activities that comprise school improvement - there are other activities and the combination will vary from school to school.

Figure 4: The ecology of school improvement.
Cited in D. Hopkins, *School Based Review for School Improvement* (p. 13).

Finally, the concept of school improvement is concisely put by Van Velzen et al (1985) when they define it as "a systematic, sustained effort aimed at change in learning conditions and other related internal conditions in one or more schools, with the ultimate aim of accomplishing educational goals more effectively" (p.48). It is clear from the proliferation of literature on school improvement that the concept implies change in one way or another. Whether planned change has its focus on pedagogical or organizational facets, whether it is major or minor, internally initiated or externally stimulated, is perhaps relatively unimportant. What is more important is that the need for change is realized and steps are taken by all concerned to improve educational opportunities for students.

## A Brief Overview of Effective Schools

Numerous studies list the characteristics of schools designated as being effective. Duignan (1986) suggests that three factors influence school effectiveness: school environment factors, school-level factors and classroom-level factors.

According to Duignan (1986), there are a number of factors in the broader community and in the immediate school environment that affect the way schools are able to function. He concluded that the school is subjected to a large number of external pressures and schools are expected to respond in a positive manner. He goes on to argue that when "they (the schools) cannot be all things to all people they are made to be the scapegoat for society's problems" (1986, p.62). Other pressures were also identified in this study:

> The pressures of rapid technological change, the demands for special services for the needs of special children, the movement to ensure equal opportunity, calls for an end to discrimination on the basis of sex, the increasing incidence of children coming from single parents or broken homes have all been identified in this study as factors, external to the school, that impinge on the role. (p.62)

Citing the research of Coleman (1966), MacKenzie (1985) and Cuban (1984), Duignan states that three other factors can have a positive or negative impact on school effectiveness: socio-economic status of students, parental involvement and support, and availability of resources (p.61,62).

With respect to school-level factors which impact upon school effectiveness, a number of characteristics are common to most studies. They include: strong leadership by the principal or other staff; high expectations by staff for students' academic achievement; a clear set of goals and an emphasis for the school; an effective staff development programme; an orderly atmosphere conducive to learning; emphasis on basic-skills acquisition; a system for the frequent monitoring of student progress, and collegial collaborative relationships among staff (Duignan, 1986, pp.62,63).

It is generally agreed that perhaps the single school-level factor which is conducive to school effectiveness is the school's culture and climate. According to Tymko (1984), the climate of an effective school, generally, "consists of three conditions: an emphasis on academics, an orderly environment and expectations for success" (p.7). This is reinforced by MacKenzie (1983) who claims that "the overall climate and atmosphere of the school can be seen as a crucible for the personal efficacy of those who work there" (p.10). Purkey and Smith (1983) synthesized effectiveness literature in the following terms:

> The literature indicates that a student's chance for success in learning cognitive skills is heavily influenced by the climate of the school (Brookover et el, 1979; Rutter, 1981; Rutter et el, 1979; Wynn, 1980). A school-level cultural press in the direction of academic achievement helps shape the environment (and climate) in which the student learns. An academically effective school would be likely to have clear goals related to school achievement, teachers and parents with high expectations, and a structure designed to maximize opportunities for students to learn. A press for academic success is more likely to realize that goal than would a climate that emphasizes affective growth or social development. (p.440)

The essence of effectiveness literature during the past ten years emphasizes the importance of the influence of school culture, or climate, in achieving school goals.

Duignan (1986) draws upon the findings of MacKenzie (1983) and Purkey and Smith (1983) to emphasize the necessity of having appropriate classroom-level factors in place if effectiveness is to occur. He argues that it is difficult, if not impossible, to conduct effective classroom teaching in "... a disorderly, disorganized and disoriented school environment". What happens in the classroom most directly determines learning outcomes, and this depends upon what teachers say and do. Tymko (1984) supports this view:

> One important research finding is that student performance in the classroom is the most direct link to student achievement. A second important finding is that teachers' behaviour can affect student performance (learning) in ways that will lead to improved student achievement. (p.8)

There is little doubt that the target for improved school effectiveness must be the school itself. (Bank, 1982; Deroche, 1981; Lezotte and Bancroft, 1985; Klausmeier, 1986) Goodlad (1984) reinforces this point when he states:

> Significant educational improvement of schooling, not mere tinkering, requires that we focus on entire schools, not just teachers or principals or curricula or organization or school-community relations, but all of these and more. We might begin with one or several of these but it is essential to realize that all are interconnected and that changing any one element ultimately affects the others. Consequently, it is advisable to focus on one place where all of these elements come together. This is the individual school. (p.xvi)

In 1985, Goodlad (cited in Clarke, 1990, p.36) reiterated his earlier assertion when he stated: "...the optimal unit for educational change is the single school with its pupils, teachers, principals--those who live there everyday--as primary participants" (p.175).

The argument for the school as the focus for school improvement efforts is advanced by Clarke (1990), drawing upon the work of Albrecht (1984):

> Responsible physicians do not prescribe remedies to an abstraction labelled "patients". Rather, they identify remedies only after carefully assessing the condition of each individual patient, many of whom are in a state of robust good health and require no remedy at all. Clearly, individual schools deserve the same sort of individual attention. (p.102)

In effecting school change the Halton Board of Education has developed a model designed to stimulate school improvement at the individual school level. This is encouraged by having schools develop a School Growth Plan (1990) to which the staff dedicates itself for at least three years. In directing its efforts towards becoming more effective, the Halton Board has evolved a set of characteristics of effective schools which, in effect, is the schools' guide in achieving sustained growth and development. This is shown in Figure 5.

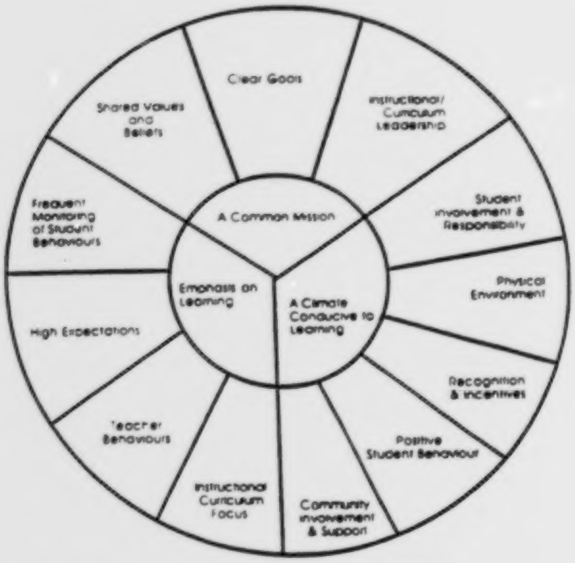

Clear Goals
Instructional/ Curriculum Leadership
Student Involvement & Responsibility
Physical Environment
Recognition & Incentives
Positive Student Behaviour
Community Involvement & Support
Instructional Curriculum Focus
Teacher Behaviours
High Expectations
Frequent Monitoring of Student Behaviours
Shared Values and Beliefs
A Common Mission
Emphasis on Learning
A Climate Conducive to Learning

Figure 5. Characteristics of effective schools.

During the past few years, there has been a significant increase in the number of school improvement projects across Canada. For example, the Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's launched its "Project 2000: Growth for Excellence in 1989" and it now includes twelve schools. A similar project, sponsored by the Newfoundland and Labrador Department of Education, is currently under way in ten school districts and includes approximately twenty schools. It is anticipated that some ten additional provincial school districts will become involved in the Project during the 1991-92 school year. Other provincial school improvement projects have been under way in British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Ontario and New Brunswick for several years.

In summary, the ever-increasing school improvement/school effectiveness initiatives are based on the premise that the delivery of quality educational programmes and services to students is the shared responsibility of all professionals in the educational system. Schools in particular have many responsibilities in managing education to ensure that students receive the maximum opportunities to learn. Efforts at school improvement programmes is one means to helping schools deal more effectively with these responsibilities.

**Current Canadian and American Scene**

To understand the changing roles and expectations of those involved in school-based administration, namely principals, assistant principals and department heads, information was requested from a selected sample of Canadian and American school jurisdictions concerning the critical role occupied by school-based administrators in the dynamics of educational system functioning. Specifically, information was sought on the following concerns:

1. The extent to which time and energy devoted to maintaining the school system serves as a barrier to instructional leadership roles.
2. The actual and preferred role of principals, assistant principals and department heads in fund raising efforts, bussing concerns, maintenance problems, dealing with disruptive influences, etc.
3. The existing and/or ideal rationale for release time from teaching for principals, assistant principals and department heads.
4. The desirability of appointment to schools of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education.
5. Any innovative efforts undertaken by your school jurisdiction to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration.
6. Any attempts undertaken by your jurisdiction to assess the critical role of school-based administrators in the performance of your education system.

Responses were received from thirty-five (35) Canadian school systems and eleven (11) American school jurisdictions. The following represents a summary of those responses received as per questions posed. Wherever possible, the replies are quoted verbatim.

American Responses

Question 1: To what extent does time and energy devoted to maintaining the school system serve as a barrier to instructional leadership roles?

The leadership and competence of American principals continues to be a key factor regarding how qualitatively effective schools can become. To compensate for the inordinate amount of time and energy devoted to simply maintaining the system, emphasis is placed on refining and improving the duties assigned to administrators and the organizational environment in which they work. Professional development opportunities for school-based administrators has been extended, the nature of administrative assignments and work requirements is being reviewed, and the cultural contexts of school districts which influence the efficacy of administrators is under close examination.

To a large degree, non-instructional problems and concerns act as barriers to instructional leadership. In many situations, the role of the principal becomes that of a manager rather than that of an instructional leader. Ideally, the principal should be a manager as well as an instructional leader. A great deal of energy and time is expended on non-instructional problems (e.g. transportation, meetings, discipline, paperwork, etc.). Consequently, the principal is often unable to devote the necessary time and energy to the role of instructional leader. In particular, the State of Florida recognizes that school system maintenance can only be improved through the promotion of human resource management and development systems which focus on improvement of administrative roles.

Improving administrative effectiveness means preparing principals to function in a fragmented, varied and reactive work environment. This means training principals to develop cognitive and analytic skills, and providing them with feedback on the effectiveness of their information processing skills and interpersonal styles. It is also recognized that teachers share in the management of effective schools. Thus, principals must be effective in inviting, encouraging and using responsible participation by members of the school community as a means of minimizing time and energy devoted to administrative routines.

The principal's primary role is to provide instructional leadership for the school. Duties such as record keeping, building maintenance, etc. could adversely affect the instructional leadership role if they took too much time from that primary responsibility. Ideally, record keeping, maintenance, fund raising and similar duties should be assigned to non-instructional personnel. However, while there is some concern among administrators about the suggested barriers to instructional leadership roles, the major impediment is the need to engage in communication with the many stakeholders of public education (e.g. teachers, support staff, union officers, school boards, parents, citizens). Administrators spend a lot of time talking to people about an issue, concern or perceived problems. Everyone wants to be involved in the educational system. A second barrier of concern is the increasing need to engage in partnerships in order to meet the needs of increasingly diverse student populations. Coalition-partnerships building take time to achieve. Paper work is often the rationale used by administrators lacking in management and/or leadership skills.

According to the Massachusetts Department of Education, extraordinary fiscal difficulties have resulted in the loss of many educational and administratively innovative programmes and the personnel to staff them. Consequently, progress made in such areas as school-based management has been set back as administrators find themselves spending less time on instructional leadership activities. Their time is now taken up on fund raising assignments, seeking primarily public dollars but also having to search private and foundation sources in order to avoid bankruptcy. Too, these new tasks are coming at a time when administrators are having to assume the functions of staff they no longer possess due to this fiscal dilemma.

Question 2: What is the actual and preferred role of principals, assistant principals and department heads in fund raising efforts, bussing concerns, maintenance problems, dealing with disruptive influences, etc.?

Most principals and assistant principals would like to maintain a balance between administrative and instructional leadership responsibilities. In actuality, a great deal of their time is spent on non-instructional tasks. Department heads, however, are usually more able to maintain this balance between teaching and administrative responsibility because of release time or a reduced teaching load. Administrators also need release time for their own personal and professional development, especially since new skills and talents are needed for them to prosper and survive in a more technical, complex and sophisticated environment. According to a Massachusetts Lead Centre School Administrator Survey (1987), principals in particular seem to place more emphasis on topics related to managerial issues than on topics related to instructional issues. For the future though, there seems to be less interest in improving individual skills to deal with non-instructional matters and more interest in applying skills to improving the quality of their schools

Evidence suggests that school-based administrators cannot teach and, at the same time carry out all the tasks required of their roles. However, there should be encouragement given to assumption of timely teaching assignments if at all possible. There are those who suggest that the role of department head should even be eliminated and an instructional (curriculum) specialist employed full-time at the secondary level. Principals need to provide leadership and facilitate restructuring efforts; create an environment for change; encourage collaboration, shared decision making and team work involving teachers, parents, students and community. In return, the district should give school-based administrators the authority, support, resources and flexibility to operate, and then to hold them accountable for results. In general, the actual role of principals, assistant principals and department heads involves many administrative duties. The preferred role is that they work with teachers to improve instruction.

Question 3: What is the existing and/or ideal rationale for release time from teaching for principals, assistant principals and department heads?

The rationale for release time from teaching for principals, assistant principals and department heads is and should be to give them time to work with their teachers to improve instruction. In fact, administrators need release time for their own personal and professional development, especially since new skills and talents are needed for them to prosper and survive in a more technical, complex and sophisticated environment.

Some argue that the answer to this question requires a serious analysis of the roles which the local education agency demands of its administration. The profession itself must assume major responsibility in defining this role of instructional leadership for the principal in particular. Regardless of who plays what role, the functions of leadership, public relations, financial management and student management must be strongly influenced by educational administrators. This requires adequate release time from teaching and mere administrivia.

In many public education settings, principals and assistant principals simply do not have teaching responsibilities. However, department heads usually have release time or at least a slightly reduced teaching load in order to discharge administrative responsibilities.

Question 4: What is the desirability of appointment to schools of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education?

A number of interesting points of view have been offered in response to this question. Schools are considered to be unique institutions which require administrators who understand not only the role of education but also the functions of schools. Training for educational leadership positions needs to look beyond just education, but should also blend an educational specific experience with other areas. Non-education persons desiring to enter the field should have a set of school related experiences through an academy type programme and an on-sight internship.

Almost without exception, school administrators have a background in education. Individual States require specific certification for both teachers and administrators. Therefore, in most cases it would not be desirable to have a school administrator who did not have an education background.

Generally, the placement of non-education personnel in school administrative positions is only cautiously encouraged, but such action is dependent upon the size of the system in question. Larger districts with more challenging situations require greater diversity among personnel. Interdisciplinary backgrounds are therefore considered essential for school-based administrators in these situations. This approach could also be beneficial in smaller districts where fewer personnel are employed. Consequently, appointment of school administrative personnel with background other than in education probably would be desirable to handle certain responsibilities such as record keeping, maintenance, etc. One particular area of school management which lends itself to the expertise offered by non-education personnel is that of business management and in particular the preparation and administration of district/school operating budgets.

Question 5: What innovative efforts are being undertaken by your school jurisdiction to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration?

A number of local district and/or State initiatives were identified in this regard. Two such undertakings were described in New Hampshire: The Principals' Academy held each summer by the State Association and the SIP (School Improvement Programme) run by the Alliance for Effective Schools.

Despite the horrendous financial situation in which Massachusetts educators find themselves, there continues to be some positive developments in this regard. Chief among these is a co-operative effort between the office of the Commissioner of Education and the State Superintendents' Association to establish in-service training for local educational leaders under a foundation grant that allows such a programme to be run for several years. Periodic training sessions under the tutelage of national experts in all phases of administration and management have been very well attended and the response to them has been enthusiastically positive. In addition, the Carnegie concept models are supported around the State. There is also continued support for the Commonwealth Leadership Institute and the Massachusetts Lead Centre (Leadership in Educational Administration Development).

The Florida Management Training Act directs the Florida Council on Educational Management to develop and sustain a comprehensive programme for educational management development at the local school level. Activities sanctioned by this Council include the identification of competencies of high performing principals; the use of objective, state-of-the-art selection procedures; the design and development of training programmes and the establishment of means for sharing resources and experience across district boundaries. In addition, each Florida school district is required to establish a Human Resource Management Development Programme as a means of enhancing the effectiveness of school-based administration.

California is currently engaging in an educational reform effort that began in 1983. Specifically, the California Legislature created the California School Leadership Academy in 1984. This Academy is intended to train school principals in instructional leadership skills. In September 1989, President Bush convened a National Education Summit and issued a series of challenges to the educational community in the United States. California has responded to these challenges by assembling representatives of major groups driving California Educational Reform and having these groups study and recommend approaches which might be taken to assist school-based administrators confront the many challenges of their roles. These challenges include educational accountability, educational assessment, high school transitions, adult literacy, organizing more effective services for children, youth and families at risk, and restructuring to improve student performance.

The State of Colorado has focused on improvement of business management practices and educational accountability through decentralization of the management of school district functions to the local school. This has resulted in considerable restructuring of school-based administrative practice.

For the past several years, the Bureau of School Improvement of the New York State Education Department has used the concept and philosophy of Effective Schools. Central to the Effective Schools' approach is an emphasis on school-based management. School improvement staff and the Effective Schools Consortia Network (five regional managers) provide technical and program assistance to identified low performing schools in an attempt to improve student achievement scores. Experience has demonstrated that school-based management is effective in helping to improve student outcomes along with improving staff morale if it is implemented properly.

Question 6: What attempts have been undertaken by your jurisdiction to assess the critical role of school-based administrators in the performance of your education system?

From the information received, it appears that little or no attempts have been made to assess the efforts of school-based administrators. Schools in the State of Virginia require that evidence of the principal's instructional leadership effectiveness be applied to the overall accrediting procedure used to assess effective school management.

Guidelines for use in developing performance appraisal systems for school-based administrators are also provided by Florida school districts. In particular, the objectives of these guidelines focus on the performance of administrators and other educational personnel in terms of well-defined role expectations; negotiated performance expectations with and for each individual, and providing the individual with periodic and regular review, feedback, coaching and assistance as needed to meet the negotiated performance expectations. This comprehensive performance appraisal system appears to be fair, equitable and legally sound.

California places a major emphasis on educational accountability as a driving force for school reform. A number of incentive programmes have been initiated to foster educational excellence. Overall outstanding performance is a prerequisite for recognition at all levels of school functioning. In a similar vein, the State of Colorado provides for evaluation of administrative practice as part of the on-going evaluation of school effectiveness. Moreover, the Colorado General Assembly, through passage of the Certificated Personnel Performance Evaluation Act in 1984 requires every school district in the State to adopt a written system for performance evaluation of certificated personnel. This includes all school-based administrators.

It is hoped that school administrators would not view school-based management as an attack upon their authority or prerogatives, but an attempt to involve a wider range of people in the decision making process in order to achieve the mission of the school. The role of the school administrator is critical to the successful implementation of school-based management. In other words, school-based management is usually successful to the degree that administrators accept some degree of "bottoms-up management" as opposed to "top-down management".

Sources for the Above Comments:

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts Department of Education -- Massachusetts.
The State Education Department/The University of the State of New York -- New York.
Commonwealth of Virginia Department of Education -- Virginia.
Florida Department of Education -- Florida.
California State Department of Education -- California.
Colorado Department of Education -- Colorado.
Arkansas Department of Education - Arkansas.
Superintendent of Public Instruction -- Washington.
Superintendent of Public Instruction -- Wisconsin.
State of New Hampshire Department of Education -- New Hampshire.
Centre for Research on the Context of Secondary School Teaching, Standford University -- California.

## Canadian Responses

Question 1: To what extent does time and energy devoted to maintaining the school system serve as a barrier to instructional leadership roles?

Instructional leadership philosophy frequently involves the need for the school to maintain accurate records, especially financial accounting, the necessity to maintain building structures and appearances at the highest level possible, and also to see matters such as fund-raising as part of the general school administration. With specific reference to building maintenance, a good working relationship between the building maintenance supervisor and his staff and the school principal is the key to achieving the goal of maintaining fine buildings.

The Education Schools' Act of most provinces clearly delineates the roles of school-based administrators. However, since most decisions concerning specific duties and roles of principals, assistant principals and department heads are made by local boards of education, it is possible for considerable variation to occur in the time and energy actually devoted to system maintenance activities.

Many school systems place a very high priority in viewing the principal as the instructional leader in the school. However, it is without question that the every day demands of organizing, managing, communicating and reporting have detracted from this most important function. These demands take up in excess of 50% of a principal's administrative time. Results of formative and summative evaluation of administrative roles confirm this fact.

On the surface, it once appeared that computers were going to save school-based administrators a tremendous amount of time. In fact, this has not proven to be the case, and perhaps the opposite is true. Although records are more complete today, the updating and maintenance of those records is very time consuming for both clerical and administrative personnel. Fund raising, despite the advent of casinos and lotteries, is an even greater burden on administrators as schools compete with each other for limited amounts of money. Interestingly, computers have simply allowed more data to be collected. Simply stated, more things can now be monitored, all of which takes more time. Administrators have to be careful to strike a balance between all areas of responsibility. If a balance is not struck, then one area will take too much time at the expense of another. Time management is therefore vital.

Occasionally, a school system does not view the time and energy devoted to maintaining the system as a barrier to instructional leadership in schools. Some assert it is a matter of how administrators manage their time. The reason for this is that a district might employ secretarial and maintenance staff to carry out those functions not directly involved with students. However, in some schools more time is being devoted to the supervision and discipline of students and this can serve as a barrier to instructional leadership. These activities can take up to 30-40% of administrative time.

There is no question that the requirement for completing administrative tasks serves as a barrier to instructional leadership roles. In fact, in small schools there is often too little time to do the administrative functions, let alone the leadership functions. Not only are the management function responsibilities a barrier because of pressing demands, but they also serve at times as a haven for those who prefer to manage rather than accept the challenge to lead!

Organizational management is considered an important part of the school administrators' role. Organizational management, along with instructional leadership, is a major category in the management of schools, with administrators often being advised to devote up to 25% of their time and energy to organizational management. The two roles which school-based administrators frequently see as conflicting are the expectations of the administrator as an "instructional leader" at the same time as the "managerial" tasks are increasing. This has sometimes resulted in committees comprised of representation from teachers, school-based administrators and central office administrators being formed to review the role description of school-based administrators and recommending revisions where necessary.

At the present time, principals are devoting more of their time to ancillary activities such as record keeping, maintenance, fund-raising and a variety of other issues resulting from current changes in society. As societal issues such as child abuse, special programmes and immigrant children (to name but a few) impact on the system daily, more and more of the principal's time is spent dealing with these issues and not on the supervision of children or the instructional programme in the school. It is difficult to say that these activities are in themselves barriers to instructional leadership, but, certainly, they do take a considerable amount of time away from traditional leadership activities. Interestingly, attention should be paid to the phrase "maintaining the school system". If this phrase includes counselling children and parents, and relating to outside support agencies, then such maintenance could use up to 50-60% of administrative time and therefore interfere with instructional leadership functions.

Theoretically, managerial record keeping should not be a concern in the future as overall administrative efficiency is increased through electronics. Building maintenance should be handled by a building manager with minimal overseeing by a principal or assistant principal. However, charitable fund-raising, Home & School activities, winter carnivals, sports events, etc. are taking more time especially as the money-tree bears less fruit! As out-of-school education expands and transportation rates increase, more and more of the funding has to be raised at the local school level. This requires more administrative organizing time. Too, reductions in funding combined with increasing demands by various government agencies and by a rapidly changing society (working parents, single parents, equity, integration or mainstreaming movements, etc.), along with central office requirements for more data are definitely and unfortunately detracting principals from their instructional leadership role.

Grass roots communication at the local community level is becoming more time consuming. Additionally, the changing role of the school is by far the largest obstacle to instructional leadership. As the school moves from the purely academic institution to a socio-academic institution or community centre, the principal is rapidly becoming a manager of family programmes.

In-school administrators are first and foremost educational leaders. The principal is a "principal-teacher". Expertise of these individuals is in the area of education and instruction and every effort must be made to assure that these people are allowed to exert and make use of this knowledge to maximum effect. While record keeping, building maintenance, fund raising, etc. are important and necessary, they must not serve as barriers to the prime role of instructional leadership. In other words, a balance must be maintained in this regard to prevent principals from becoming bogged down in paper work and non-educational administrative detail.

Too often we tend to think of administration in terms of what could be included under the operational area of management. We fail to train administrators to take a holistic approach to their responsibilities. While it is true that more and more management tasks are being thrust upon administrators, release time need not necessarily be provided. Release time should be provided for the school programme, pupil and staff personnel areas of administrative responsibility. Therefore, the management type tasks are not really barriers; they become barriers to performing what should be top priority functions.

Time and energy demands made by maintenance functions of school administration can be debilitating to effective educational leadership. Effective time management strategies linked with a clear sense of priorities for the administrator are critical for optimal use of administrative resources. Short-term and long-range planning at the school level are important and necessary conditions for effective use of administrative time and energy.

Question 2: What is the actual and preferred role of principals, assistant principals and department heads in fund raising efforts, bussing concerns, maintenance problems, dealing with disruptive influences, etc.?

A majority of school systems prefer that principals remain responsible for the total administration of the school. In most cases improvement of instruction is viewed as a critical objective of school-based administrators. In some instances, there is an attempt to develop the role of assistant principal as a position integral unto itself and not dependent on the definition given to the role of the principal. In essence, most provincial schools' Acts require that principals provide instructional leadership in their schools. School districts also view this as the preferred role of local school principals.

Although there is a wealth of research on this topic, it can all be synthesized down to the role of administrators ensuring that students learn to the best of their ability and that the place called school is a positive, nurturing environment. This again clearly places the principal in the role of an educational leader and manager of the school, inclusive of duties in the task areas of personnel administration, staff development, educational planning and evaluation, business management, plant management, community relations and acceptance of school system policies, goals and objectives.

Principals should generally create a sense of direction for the school, set the tone of the school and provide strong instructional leadership. They should be action-oriented, utilize resources effectively and be responsible for evaluating the achievement of the school's goals and objectives. Assistant principals are generally considered to play active roles in the following dimensions of school-based management: leadership, organization, climate, instruction, staff development, and enforcing/applying board policy, regulations and procedures in addition to schools' Act regulations. Educational responsibilities for department heads in secondary schools should include a wide range of educational responsibilities and administrative responsibilities. Again, in all three of the above administrative roles, responsibility for supervising and administering the educational programme is paramount. It should be noted that very specific role descriptions for these positions were submitted by a number of responding school systems across Canada. Whereas managerial aspects of administration often take precedence, the preferred role of these administrative officers is one of instructional leadership in the school, which of course, encompasses personnel and curriculum. However, one can not avoid the other administrative functions that must arise, such as the disciplining and supervision of students, etc. To enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration, such administrators should attend conferences at both the National and Provincial levels.

Principals and assistant principals are considered programme leaders concerned with the implementation and on-going evaluation/review of all facets of educational programmes. In addition, principals and assistant principals of special education schools and programmes are responsible for the admission and discharge of students. Whereas it can be assumed that school administrators manage their buildings, the real challenge is to have school-based administrators accept the challenge of leadership. Therefore, it is expected of these administrators to have ownership of curriculum changes within their buildings, implementation of new teaching strategies and implementation of educational philosophies.

In general, a majority of school districts view the actual and preferred role of school administrators to be in the area of student, teacher and community involvement. Working with these three areas is the most desirable and worthwhile. To separate the actual from the preferred role of principals, assistant principals and department heads is most difficult. Although one would want to believe that individuals in significant positions of responsibility within the school structure should always be curriculum leaders and in some cases the head teacher of the school, this has not always proven to be the reality. Leadership can be provided in a wide variety of ways and it is to be hoped that in most cases the actual and preferred roles are determined more by the individual than by any particular structure, system or circumstance within the school.

Question 3: What is the existing and/or ideal rationale for release time from teaching for principals, assistant principals and department heads?

The total administration of a school is the ultimate role responsibility of the principal. With the large scope of the job description, one would expect release time to perform these duties. Given the complicated nature of today's society and its constant demand for justification of every action, it would be unreasonable to expect a principal to teach full time, be responsible for the total administration of the school and still have an expectation of quality work. With the changing role of the school to that of a socio-academic institution and with a much larger involvement of outside agencies, more of the principal's management role must be played out during the business hours of the day and cannot be done in the evenings. Needless to say, the teaching principal must wear two hats and in doing so must sacrifice some group or activity at least some of the time.

System maintenance requires time and the management of children has changed markedly in recent years. Weapons of intimidation such as threats, physical punishment, scolding and writing lines have largely disappeared from the school. More time consuming methods of counselling, listening and development of alternative programmes for students have replaced these approaches in working with children. Parents often need counselling and listening to as well. Schools often initiate actions which necessitates the help of other social agencies. This requires time. More analytic methods have also been developed to assess student needs. People cannot attend to these needs at the same time as providing reliable, focused attention to the needs of regular classroom instruction. Hence, the consequence -- a need for release time.

The release time from teaching for principals, assistant principals and department heads is frequently based on the fact that these roles have become increasingly more demanding and thus more time consuming. Release time should therefore be structured according to student population, size of staff, number of classes and/or certain special circumstances such as unique programmes and collective agreements. The simple fact is that educational administrators of this era are faced with a host of problems beyond the realm of what is normally considered "education". A variety of social services and health problems confront them daily. If they are to attack these problems and at the same time administer the units for which they are responsible, release time must be provided. Indeed, it is unfortunate but necessary that in the larger units principals and assistant principals be freed from all teaching responsibilities. In addition, curriculum demands are growing at a rapid rate and these too require undivided attention that cannot be effected without release time. Perhaps the question should be "How can we create situations that will permit all in-school administrators to teach at least one class per week?" This might prove to be the only way to get around the fact that no release time is provided for the teaching of pupils!

The rationale for administrative release time should never be management-type tasks. Rather, school programme, pupil and staff personnel, and community relations-type tasks do require release time from teaching responsibilities. Those who are released, however, must view their responsibilities in terms of tangible instructional leadership efforts as being their top priority. More specifically, principals require time to conduct staff evaluations to provide for improvement of instruction and offer staff development initiatives, among other activities. This time must derive from that allocated for direct teaching of students.

Release time for administration is typically justified in order for administrators to lead, co-ordinate or otherwise bring to completion a wide range of administrative functions, including such activities as supervision, curriculum implementation, planning, co-ordinating pupil personnel services and communicating with various publics. Release time alone is only one of several conditions required in order for these critical administrative functions to occur in a school.

In many large school settings, principals are full-time administrators and therefore have no teaching responsibilities. However, assistant principals often teach at least half-time and department heads frequently have little or no release time to carry out their administrative duties. In these settings, the rationale for release time from teaching appears to be for professional development purposes or for participation in system projects either as direct participants or indirect input. The dual role of principals as manager of the school site and as educational leader requires 100% of their time. Although principals obviously need credibility as educators in order to deal with teachers in their schools, they also gain such credibility through supervision and evaluation of teachers in the classroom. Principals are expected to be able to help teachers teach more effectively and it is in that educational leadership role that their credibility as educators resides.

Additionally, the administrative tasks of assistant principals should not necessarily be looked on as being accomplished through release time from teaching. Rather, the size of the school and the administrative requirements resulting from that size must be taken into consideration and administrative time assigned accordingly. In some cases, it may mean a re-allignment of present role responsibilities.

In some districts the rationale for release time from teaching for principals, assistant principals and department heads varies from school to school. Full-time principals are appointed to schools and the reason is that the main functions to be carried out include the areas of personnel and curriculum. Preparation required to teach a class would detract from that role. Assistant principals may have no teaching responsibilities or teach up to one quarter of their time. Department heads, according to the size of the department, can be given a one course remission to enable them to carry out co-ordinating duties for their department. As such, it becomes obvious that the release time for these groups encompasses instructional leadership, personnel, curriculum, implementation, supervision and various other administrative duties. It should be borne in mind that principals, assistant principals and department heads are responsible for both formative and summative evaluation, and that sufficient release time must be allowed to undertake this duty.

Question 4: What is the desirability of appointment to schools of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education?

Administrative personnel with backgrounds in business and finance could be, and in fact are, beneficial as school/district business administrators. A good example would be a superintendent of business. However, a majority of responding districts have either not experimented in this regard or have had little success in this venture. For the most part only professional educators seem to have been appointed to school administration positions. A Master of Education degree is frequently required as one of the criteria for school administrator selection.

For all provinces, the Acts and Regulations determine the qualification of people appointed to particular positions of responsibility in education. In positions where there is freedom of choice to appoint from non-academic backgrounds, these are determined based on the specific job description for that position. There are certainly a number of tasks within the school system that could be handled by those with other than academic backgrounds and, in some cases, management experience would be as satisfactory as teacher training. However, there is no allowance for the hiring of personnel for the administration of schools other than holders of provincial teaching certificates. The notion has never received serious attention and if proposed, would likely be justifiably strongly opposed.

Whereas all school-based administrators tend to have backgrounds in education, some do have a background in non-educational areas in addition to their education background. This has proved quite useful for the following reasons -- if an administrator has just gone from public school to university and back into the school system to teach and administrate, there tends to be a lack of understanding and knowledge of the non-educational world of work. It is most useful in dealing with parents of children that one has some empathy for the frustrations of parents that may be brought on by their everyday job. Thus, a broad background is desirable when appointing school administrative personnel. Again, it must be noted that the role of providing curriculum leadership must take precedence over the management aspect of running a school. A strong background in education is therefore a necessity. In other words, it is absolutely essential that the educational leader in the school is a former teacher with an exceptionally fine teaching record.

Should there ever be appointment to schools of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education, the role description of the principal would have to change. The instructional function would have to be removed, leaving a purely management role. In most schools, the management role would have insufficient work to constitute the need for a full-time school manager. A part-time, absent manager is not desirable either since many things in schools do not happen by schedule.

Another less desirable outcome could be the development of adversarial attitudes between a non-educator trained operations manager and the instructional staff. Education is an extensively human endeavour. Many human actions are emotionally and intuitively controlled rather than logically controlled. This is the nature of humans and therefore to some degree schools. Thus the school cannot be run from a purely business logic standpoint. The successful team leader must have that instructional experience so that a balance can be maintained between a business logic and the often illogical world of students and teachers.

A way of circumventing some of the above-mentioned problems is to hire individuals of a non-education background who possess expertise in other important areas. For example, larger school units may justify the appointment of a business administrator to handle all record keeping, fund raising, book keeping, inventory, etc. In addition, a nurse can be of invaluable assistance not only from a health perspective but in terms of her/his ability to serve as a supplementary guidance counsellor. By the same token, a building foreman can be responsible for maintenance. All of these individuals can report to the principal who continues to retain overall responsibility for the total plant operation. For smaller school units, it may be wise to share such people between two, three or more facilities.

Obviously, persons with background other than in education should not perform administrative tasks other than in the area of physical facilities and some management tasks (e.g. finance, purchasing). Size of school, degree of decentralization desired inter alia become crucial policy prerequisites. Appropriate training and re-training of school administrators is required if we wish to overcome the image that non-educators can do the job as well as educators. We should also insist that our educators manage the whole of their enterprise with emphasis on the appropriate operational area(s).

The appointment of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education is to some extent a moot point. The more relevant question should be, "Who can most effectively provide educational leadership in schools?" Excellent managers are not what is required to improve school administration, rather, excellent educators who are also excellent leaders and managers are required.

Question 5: What innovative efforts are being undertaken by your school jurisdiction to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration?

Responses to this question were many and varied. Within the past five (5) years, some districts have focused on enhancing supervision and leadership skills through attendance at Educational Leadership Centres established at the district level. In particular, much work has been done across Canada with department heads, assistant principals and building principals in this regard. The Greater Victoria School District provides time and money for ongoing professional development of its administrative officers. This includes both individual and group professional development. A majority of time in the past year has been spent on a project entitled "The Reconceptualization of the Principalship".

The Vancouver School District has initiated an entire programme of professional development for people interested in positions of additional responsibility and for those already in administrative officer leadership roles. Once such programme is called Peer Assisted Leadership (PAL).

Some recent innovative efforts to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration in Alberta generally involve inclusion of the role of principals in the 1988 School Act. Specification of the role of principals in legislation is intended to have an impact on the pre-service and in-service training of principals as well as ensure these role responsibilities are fulfilled. In addition, Alberta Education has sponsored an Educational Leadership Academy for current or aspiring school administrators.

There have been a number of innovative efforts taken in Saskatchewan to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration. Saskatchewan Education has undertaken a major review of provincial education which has resulted in a "Directions" report. Two important initiatives address educational leadership: (1) The Saskatchewan Educational Leadership Unit (SELU) was established by Saskatchewan Education in conjunction with the University of Saskatchewan. The mandate of SELU is to promote educational leadership by providing research, professional development activities and consultative services to school administrative personnel. (2) A second initiative is the School Improvement Programme which has as a central theme the development of a collaborative style of instructional leadership.

The Saskatoon Board of Education conducts annual two-day leadership seminars for school administrators, as well as weekly half-day meetings. School superintendents also prepare annual written supervision summary reports for all school administrators in addition to ongoing development supervision.

The Regina School Division has implemented a supervision and evaluation of principals policy which has been well accepted by principals and assistant principals as part of the ongoing professional development of administrators at both the school and the system level. High school principals are expected to formally supervise department heads and their role as part of the school's administrative team. The system also provides extensive professional development opportunities for administrators both as leaders and participants. Regular monthly meetings are held for both principals and, separately, for assistant principals. An annual two-day seminar is also held for principals, and all in-school administrators plan an active role in the day-to-day professional development sessions offered to all staff.

The Saskatoon Catholic School System has three enhanced efforts in addition to the common school division programmes in place across the province for improving administrative and school effectiveness. These include (1) Supervision for Effectiveness - a peer triad supervision system for in-school administrators. Each principal is a member of a group of three principals who share problems, ideas, concerns and dreams. They act as each other's mentors and professional development initiators. The school division transfers principals every 5 to 7 years. This process rejuvenates, broadens experiences and challenges principals while eliminating the boredom of routine. (2) Team Building for Effectiveness -- this refers to development of the in-school administrative team where the assistant principal is not just a "gopher" but has real responsibilities and decision making power and becomes part of a team sharing decision making experience. To achieve this team, constant discussion must occur aimed at development methods of team building. This is done in a variety of ways. A further important aspect of team building includes the holding of twice yearly joint Board-Principals meetings at which issues in education are discussed. This places the Board in a unique position of being part of the team. It also means that in-school administrators take ownership for Board decisions. (3) Collaborative Approach to Decision Making and Policy Development -- as a result of collaboration, policies and procedures developed have the commitment and ownership of all administrators from assistant principals to the Board level. To enhance this collaborative process, the team structure is utilized. When principals take ownership for a policy or thrust of the school division, the successful implementation of that policy or thrust is greater since the principal becomes the key element of school change.

Mystery Lake School District (Thompson, Manitoba) provides in-house in-service sessions and professional development in areas other than education. For example, the local mining company, INCO Limited, has invited school-based administrators to attend their sessions on quality control which involves the keeping of statistics on every day events.

Fort Garry School Division No. 5 is currently in the third year of a new programme which addresses the impact of the effective school model on system functioning. This has been tied into the performance review of all school principals, where the emphasis is on the role of the principal as an educational leader and school manager.

A significant number of professional development programmes are run by the Ottawa Board of Education for all school-based administrators to assist these individuals with their professional growth. Additionally, funds are provided for them to attend courses and conferences elsewhere in particular fields where professional development cannot be offered. An attempt has been made to introduce management programmes such as "Frontline Leadership" to ensure that school administrators are well briefed in new management techniques as well as in-school operational administration.

The Windsor Board of Education's Primary/Junior Education Statement of Intent and the Transition Years Statement of Intent is offered as assistance to school-based administrators. Briefly, this implementation plan requires the in-servicing of school administrators to ensure understanding and acceptance so that they can in-service their staff, communicate with parents, provide resources and monitor success.

Efforts within the Metropolitan Toronto Separate School Board to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration have centered on the following activities: A reorganization of the administrative structure of the Metropolitan Toronto Separate School Board was approved in 1988. A key element of the reorganization was the consolidation and enhancement of local autonomy and control in the schools. This was a launching vehicle for reorganization related to enhancing local school effectiveness.

Over the years, School District 14, (Sackville, New Brunswick) has provided a wide range of in-service approaches to changing administrative attitudes. In-service on "Effective Schools" has been the crux of their efforts. An attempt is being made to have schools establish goals and objectives which tie into district-wide goals and objectives initially developed by the Board of School Trustees with reaction from staff. This system will be embarking upon a systematic evaluation of administrative tasks within each of the six operational areas, all of this with the purpose in mind of arriving at a greater degree of decentralization of authority, responsibility and accountability to the school and classroom level. Finally, this district will be assessing ways and means of involving the community in a more meaningful way at the local and district levels of administration.

A number of Cape Breton District principals are currently active participants in the I.D.E.A. Programme (Institute for the Development of Educational Activities). In addition to this programme, all principals have received basic training in the implementation of a Teaching Effectiveness Programme. This process is totally concerned with helping to improve a quality of supervision, teaching and learning. Approximately 75% of principals have attended intensive teacher effectiveness summer school sessions at the Nova Scotia Teachers' College. This Board has also recently initiated an extensive administrative evaluation policy which is both summative and formative in nature.

The Newfoundland Teachers' Association, through its professional development division, has also been involved in the I.D.E.A. Programme during the past three years and a number of principals throughout the Province have participated. As well, under the former Department of Educational Administration at Memorial University, some 200 school-based administrators, school district office and Department of Education personnel have taken advantage of a one-week intensive Short Course in Educational Leadership. Unfortunately, this Course was unable to continue in 1991 because of the unavailability of substitute teachers to cover classes for those attending this Short Course.

Question 6: What attempts have been undertaken by your jurisdiction to assess the critical role of school-based administrators in the performance of your education system?

As with the previous question, a variety of approaches have been deployed throughout Canadian school jurisdictions in this regard. The following represents a summary of these findings.

The Alberta Consortium for the Development of Leadership in Education represents an exciting development in the assessment of school-based administrative roles. The Consortium has just released a study entitled, Educational Leadership in Alberta. This study is a survey of the perceived adequacy of educational leadership in Alberta and holds some potentially generalizable conclusions for other Canadian Provinces.

The Saskatoon Board of Education has in place the Developmental Supervision for School Administration Report which has proved very valuable to school and central office administration in understanding and enhancing the role of school-based administration. It should also be noted that the Saskatoon Catholic School System also has in place an Evaluation of Principals Policy for that school division. In completing this process, the Association Director can make some subjective judgements about the role of the school-based administrator in the performance of that Division. In the opinion of this school system the principal is the critical element in charge of school system improvement.

Relative to assessing the critical role of school administrators and the performance of the educational system, regular meetings are held with school administrators of the Mystery Lake School District (Thompson, Manitoba) to deal with various issues that arise in the system. Reports are received of surveys carried out by independent organizations, results of internal criterion reference testing, results of student performance at university after leaving the school system. These reports also have a part to play in the setting of annual goals and objectives. A report is also made back on the attainment of goals

Alberta
    Calgary Roman Catholic Separate School District #1
    Lethbridge Catholic School District
    Office of the Deputy Minister, Alberta Education
Saskatchewan
    Director of Education, Battleford School Division No.58
    St. Paul's R.C.S.S.D. #20
    Saskatoon Board of Education
    Regina School Division No.4
    Deputy Minister, Saskatchewan Education
Manitoba
    Deputy Minister of Education and Training
    Mystery Lake School District No.2355
    Fort Garry School Division No.5
Newfoundland
    Memorial University, Faculty of Education
Ontario
    The Lambton County Board of Education
    The Lakehead District Roman Catholic Separate School Board
    Carleton Roman Catholic School Board
    Ottawa Board of Education
    The Board of Education for the City of Windsor
    The Metropolitan Toronto School Board
    Deputy Minister, Ministry of Education
    The Board of Education for the City of London
    The Durham Board of Education
    Carleton Board of Education
    Peterborough County Board of Education
    The York Region Board of Education
    Metropolitan Separate School Board (Toronto)

    The Halton Board of Education
New Brunswick
    Office of The Superintendent of School District 14
Nova Scotia
    Kings County District School Board
    Cape Breton District School Board
Prince Edward Island
    Regional Administrative Unit Two
    Department of Education
    Regional School Unit Three

## Overview of Related Commission Briefs

This section presents a summary and synthesis of forty-six briefs which offered perceptions concerning the administrative task areas of the principal, assistant principal, and department head in Newfoundland and Labrador schools. A breakdown of these briefs is presented in Table 3.

It should be noted that the thirty-two briefs from principals were in response to Royal Commission requests and represent approximately 43% of principals invited to make submissions. The remaining twelve were among numerous others submitted to the Commission and are included in this discussion because of specific references made to the role of school-based administrators.

Table 3 Source of Commission briefs relative to school-based administration

| Source | Briefs Presented |
|---|---|
| Principals | 32 |
| School Boards | 3 |
| Special Interest Councils | 2 |
| Programme Co-ordinator and Teacher | 1 |
| Parent Teacher Associations | 3 |
| Development Associations | 2 |
| Teachers | 1 |
| TOTAL | 44 |

The briefs were analyzed according to five administrative task areas associated with the roles of the principal: **General School Management, Personnel Services, Instructional Leadership, School-Community Relations** and **Management of Professional Activities**. While the thirty-two principals did not specify the amount of time actually devoted to each of these task areas, it was obvious from their briefs that the vast majority of their duties were concerned with tasks of **General School Management** or related system maintenance. In this regard, the following tasks emerged as being among those to which principals devote most of their time and energy when they are not involved in teaching duties:

- Routine paper work and clerical-type duties; day-to-day facilities management activities such as building maintenance, monitoring suppliers, scheduling special events and handling telephone calls;
- Scheduling, teacher assignment, making arrangements for substitute teachers;
- Fund raising;
- School Bussing;
- Management of budget; and
- Attending to duties assigned by Central Office and the Department of Education, such as filling out forms and attending meetings.

With respect to the provision of **Personnel Services**, principals listed the following as being their major task area responsibilities:

- Dissemination of information to teachers, staff and students relative to such matters as new school board policies, schedules, rules and regulations, and legal implications of teachers' and students' behaviour;
- Managing conflicts arising from at-risk students due to discipline problems, and student control;
- Supervision of students;
- Planning and monitoring extra curricular activities;
- Attempting to find time to evaluate teachers;
- Co-ordinating professional development activities for teachers;
- Supervising student teachers.

It is particularly noteworthy that over 75% of principals emphasized their perception of the dire need to be able to fulfil the role of **Instructional Leadership**. They indicated their understanding of this concept to include such role dimensions as creating and maintaining an effective school climate; the importance of short and long-range evaluation; school improvement projects; supervision and evaluation of teachers; participative decision making; staff morale, curriculum development and serving as a catalyst and change agent.

However, while realizing the implications of the instructional leadership dimension for the principalship, very few principals indicated their meaningful involvement in carrying out this function. Essentially, the major inhibiting factors cited were: lack of time due to disproportionate efforts expended on matters of General School Management or system maintenance; assigned teaching responsibilities, and conflict resolution. In short, active participation in practical instructional leadership activities was minimal at best and non-existent at worst. The reality of the situation for principals in this Province is that, in the day-to-day operation of schools, over 95% of the respondents stressed that they just do not have the time to do much more than "maintain the system". They conveyed the very clear message that if their role is to assume meaningful instructional leadership activities, then drastic steps must be taken to provide them with the time and professional development opportunities to facilitate the role.

Repeatedly, principals expressed growing concern about the complete lack of or sheer inadequacy of support services available to facilitate instructional leadership. This, combined with the over-increasing demands placed upon principals from the employer and community-at-large, appears to leave a sense of discouragement, despondency, apathy and even deja vu with respect to the reality of providing maximum opportunities for student growth and learning.

In the area of creating and maintaining effective **School-Community Relations**, a majority of principals observed that these activities associated with that task area take up a considerable amount of their time:

- Meetings with parents concerning discipline problems and academic performance of students;
- Arranging for community use of facilities after regular school hours;
- Planning and conducting orientation meetings for parents, liaising with home and school association and other community and outside agencies;
- Serving as school spokesperson; and
- Responding to routine telephone calls.

Most principals also indicated that their list of task areas included the **Management of Professional Activities**. The primary task responsibilities cited in this dimension of their role include: fulfilling responsibilities assigned by the district school board office; serving on district-wide committees; maintaining membership in professional groups such as the School Administrators' Council; taking university graduate courses, and facilitating dialogue between teachers and other colleagues in administration. In this aspect of the administrative role, principals reiterated the amount of time expended on their own professional development outside of regular working hours.

In the twelve briefs submitted by school boards, special interest councils, parent-teacher associations and development associations referred to earlier, reaffirmations of the perceived and actual duties of the principal were seen to be similar to those of principals themselves. There was a strong sense expressed by these groups that while the tasks specified are essential for organizational operations, the constraints under which principals currently function are serious impediments to developing and maintaining the most effective and efficient educational system for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador. Implicit in the observations of principals and other groups referred to in this section, is the obvious need for changes in the present organizational structure and operation of the principalship. In this regard, proposed changes are recommended in a later section of this Report.

## List of Individuals and Groups Submitting Briefs

All Hallows Parent-Teachers' Association
Christopher Amos, Grant Collegiate, Springdale
Bay St. George South Area Development Association
M.S. Bonnell, St. Patrick's Elementary, Burin
Arthur Bull, Templeton Collegiate, Gillams
Peter Chalker, Bishop Field School, St. John's
Gerald Coombs, Mt. Pearl Senior High
Brendan Croskery, Port-aux-Basques
Robert Dukeshire, Highview Academy, Corner Brook
Green Bay Integrated School Board, Springdale
Sister Helen Harding, St. Joseph's High, St. George's
Home and School Association for Carbonear Integrated and Davis Elementary Schools
Evert Allen, King Academy All Grade, Hr. Breton
Area Council of Harbour Grace and Carbonear
Walwin Blackmore, Windsor Collegiate
Raymond Bown and Rev. Lawrence Supe, St. George's Elementary School, Burnt Islands
Burin Peninsula Integrated School Board, Salt Pond
Co-ordinators' Special Interest Council, Newfoundland Teachers' Association
Walter Crotty, G.R. Smallwood Collegiate, Wabush, Labrador
Don Downer, Sir Wilfred Grenfell College, Corner Brook
Brian Galway, Holy Spirit, Manuels
R.B. Hancock, Mountain Field Central High, Forteau, Labrador
Richard Harvey, NTA School Administrators' Council, Foxtrap
Sister Alicia Linehan, Sacred Heart Elementary, Curling
Joseph Lockyer, Fogo Island Central High School
Lloyd Mercer, Herdman Collegiate, Corner Brook
John Paddock, Notre Dame Academy, Grand Falls
Lee Pitman, Henry Gordon Academy, Cartwright, Labrador
Presentation Parent-Teachers' Association, Corner Brook
Merrill Rose, A.R. Scammell Academy, Change Islands
Bruce Sheppard, Assension Collegiate, Bay Roberts
Gerald Smith, Our Lady of Lourdes Elementary, Lourdes
Staff, Our Lady of Mount Carmel Central High, Mount Carmel, St. Mary's Bay
Integrated School Board, Vineland/Strait of Belle Isle, Springdale
Frank Meade, Greenwood High School, Milltown, Bay d'Espoir
William Mercer, Whitbourne High School
Nelson Pilgrim, St. Anthony Elementary
Philip Pollard, Ecclesia Pentecostal Academy, Birchy Bay
Mr. Ralph, G. Shaw Pentecostal Collegiate, Chapel Island
School Administrators' Council, Newfoundland Teachers' Association
Fred Simms, A.J. Matthews Elementary, Burgeo
R.J. Stapleton, Menihek Integrated High School
Staff, Sacred Heart Elementary School, Marystown
Shirley Genge

## III. COMMENTARY ON STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

This section provides commentary on the empirical findings from a questionnaire distributed to a stratified random sample consisting of eighty principals and fifty assistant principals currently administering Newfoundland and Labrador schools. The section is divided into three parts in an effort to describe practising administrators' perceptions of their school management roles. Part One provides demographic information on those principals and assistant principals who responded to the questionnaire. Information is also provided on the setting in which these administrators work. Part Two presents a profile of perceived administrative practice based on respondents' views of existing role responsibilities and barriers, amd their views of preferred changes to improve role effectiveness.

### Demographic Information on Questionnaire Respondents

#### The Person

A total of 96 administrators, representing 73.8% of the Study population, completed and returned useable questionnaires. Included in this group were 57 principals and 39 assistant principals. Tables 4 and 5 provide the following information on these principals and assistant principals respectively: sex, age, academic qualifications, teaching experience, administrative experience, years spent in present role and area of specialization.

Table 4 Demographic information relative to principal respondents

| Demographic Variable | f | % |
|---|---|---|
| Sex | | |
| Male | 50 | 87.7 |
| Female | 7 | 12.3 |
| Age (years) | | |
| 25 and under | 2 | 3.5 |
| 26 - 35 | 11 | 19.3 |
| 36 - 45 | 27 | 47.4 |
| 46 - 55 | 17 | 29.8 |
| Over 55 | - | - |
| Academic Qualifications | | |
| Undergraduate (Education) | 12 | 21.1 |
| Undergraduate (Other) | 14 | 24.6 |
| M.Ed. (Educational Admin.) | 23 | 40.4 |
| M.Ed. (Curr. & Inst.) | 5 | 8.8 |
| Other degree | 3 | 5.3 |
| Teaching Experience (years) | | |
| 5 or less | 3 | 5.3 |
| 6 - 15 | 16 | 28.1 |
| 16 - 25 | 25 | 43.9 |
| More than 25 | 13 | 22.8 |
| Administrative Experience (years) | | |
| 5 or less | 11 | 19.3 |
| 6 - 15 | 25 | 43.9 |
| 16 - 25 | 18 | 31.6 |
| More than 25 | 3 | 5.3 |
| Years Spent in Present Administrative Role | | |
| 5 or less | 27 | 47.3 |
| 6 - 10 | 14 | 24.6 |
| 11 - 15 | 6 | 10.5 |
| 16 - 25 | 10 | 17.5 |
| Area of Specialization | | |
| Primary | 4 | 7.0 |
| Elementary | 21 | 36.8 |
| Secondary | 32 | 56.1 |

N = 57

Principals' perceptions of their role were quite likely affected by the variable sex, with 87% of respondents in this sample being male. Individuals were generally quite mature, as evidenced by the fact that only 22.8% were less than 36 years of age. Nearly half were between the ages of 36 and 45, while approximately 30% were within an early retirement range of 46 - 55 years. These principals were also very well qualified academically, with 45.7% possessing at least an undergraduate degree (education or otherwise) and 49.2% holding graduate qualifications.

Principals participating in this Study possessed considerable teaching and administrative experience. All principals had some teaching experience, with 94.7% having taught for six years or more. In fact, 72% of these respondents had taught for six to 25 years and a substantial 22.8% had more than 25 years of classroom experience to their credit. This same experience background was extended into time spent in an administrative position. In this regard, 75.5% had six to 25 years of administrative experience. Only 5.3% of this sample had more than 25 years of administrative role involvement, while an interesting number (19.3%) had five or less years of such experience. This factor may account for a sizeable 47.3% of these principals having spent five years or less in their present administrative position. Whereas 35.1% had occupied their present position for six to 15 years, a rather noteworthy finding is the fact that 10 principals (17.5%) had spent 16 to 25 years in their present role position. That this experience background impacted on role performance at each level of school operation is verified by the fact that respondents' specialization embraced the areas of primary, elementary and secondary training.

Table 5 reveals a male dominated assistant principal sample, with only 11 respondents (28.2%) being female. This suggests that, in a manner similar to the principalship, the assistant principalship throughout the Newfoundland educational system might portray a strong gender bias in favour of males. Assistant principals who participated in this Study were also quite mature, with no respondents 25 years of age or less. In fact, 71.8% of this sample were between the ages of 26 and 45, with 11 assistant principals (28.2%) between 46 and 55 years of age. Role occupants were very academically qualified. A total of 18 respondents (46.2%) had at least an undergraduate degree (educational or otherwise), and an equally impressive 17 members (43.6%) had obtained graduate qualifications.

Table 5 Demographic information relative to assistant principal respondents

| Demographic Variable | f | % |
|---|---|---|
| Sex | | |
| Male | 28 | 71.8 |
| Female | 11 | 28.2 |
| Age (years) | | |
| 25 and under | - | - |
| 26 - 35 | 5 | 12.8 |
| 36 - 45 | 23 | 59.0 |
| 46 - 55 | 11 | 28.2 |
| Over 55 | - | - |
| Academic Qualifications | | |
| Undergraduate (Education) | 6 | 15.4 |
| Undergraduate (Other) | 12 | 30.8 |
| M.Ed. (Educational Admin.) | 13 | 33.3 |
| M.Ed. (Curr. & Inst.) | 4 | 10.3 |
| Other degree | 4 | 10.3 |
| Teaching Experience (years) | | |
| 5 or less | - | - |
| 6 - 15 | 10 | 25.6 |
| 16 - 25 | 18 | 46.2 |
| More than 25 | 11 | 28.2 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Administrative Experience (years) | | |
| 5 or less | 16 | 41.0 |
| 6 - 15 | 14 | 35.8 |
| 16 - 25 | 7 | 17.9 |
| More than 25 | 2 | 5.1 |
| Years Spent in Present Administrative Role | | |
| 5 or less | 24 | 61.5 |
| 6 - 10 | 5 | 12.8 |
| 11 - 15 | 7 | 17.9 |
| 16 - 25 | 3 | 7.7 |
| Area of Specialization | | |
| Primary | 6 | 15.4 |
| Elementary | 15 | 38.5 |
| Secondary | 17 | 43.6 |
| (Missing) | 1 | 2.6 |

N = 39

Respondents revealed a considerable amount of teaching experience. All possessed more than five years of classroom teaching, with 71.8% indicating six to 25 years of such exposure. Eleven assistant principals (28.2%) had more than 25 years of pedagogical experience. However, 16 respondents (41.0%) had five or less years of administrative experience, suggesting a rather recent role change for a number of these individuals. Despite this finding, it is apparent that a majority of respondents had been involved in school management for some time, with 53.7% displaying six to 25 years of role experience and two individuals (5.1%) having accumulated more than 25 years of such experience.

A curious finding pertains to the number of years spent in the present assistant principalship role. Given the administrative experience reported by these respondents, a substantial majority (61.5%) reported five or less years in the current role. This suggests the possibility of possessing an administrative title with little or no administrative involvement. Interestingly, approximately one-third of respondents (30.1%) did indicate six to 15 years in the present administrative position. In summary, the perceptions of assistant principals seem to derive from the total range of school specialization in Newfoundland education, with secondary schools representing 43.6% of the responses and primary/elementary schools comprising the remaining 54.9%.

## The Setting

The school settings for respondents in this Study included all denominational jurisdictions with the exception of Seventh Day Adventist. A variety of grade combinations were listed as per Table 6. Secondary schools comprised 27.1% of the sample, while primary/elementary schools formed an additional 40.6% of the respondent management bases. Five junior high schools were also represented as were 21 all-grade settings.

Table 7 depicts the range of school enrolments reported in this sample. Quite clearly, the small school phenomenon characteristic of Newfoundland education is verified by the respondents in this Study. Fifteen schools (15.6%) reported an enrolment less than 100 students while only 11 schools had an enrolment greater than 501 students. A common school enrolment in this sample consisted of 100 to 300 students (72.8%).

Table 6 Grade representation depicted in school sample.

| Grade/Level | f | % |
|---|---|---|
| Level I, II, III | 6 | 6.3 |
| 7 - 12 | 20 | 20.8 |
| K - 12 | 21 | 21.9 |
| 7 - 9 | 5 | 5.2 |
| K - 6/7 | 32 | 33.3 |
| K - 3/4 | 7 | 7.3 |
| Other | 5 | 5.2 |
| N = | 96 | |

Table 7 Enrolment variation depicted in school sample

| School Enrolment | f | % |
|---|---|---|
| Less than 100 | 15 | 15.6 |
| 100 - 300 | 40 | 41.6 |
| 301 - 500 | 30 | 31.2 |
| 501 - 1000 | 11 | 11.5 |
| N = | 96 | |

Staff size appeared to be closely associated with the variation depicted in student enrolment. Despite the fact that two respondents failed to indicate the number of teachers in their schools, 21 respondents (21.8%) reported fewer than ten teachers and only seven administrators (7.2%) reported a staff size between 31 and 50. A majority of administrators (66.6%) reported a staff complement of ten to 30 teachers.

Most administrators indicated some secretarial assistance in their role responsibilities. Thirty-three respondents (34.4%) reported only a half unit of such service, while 39 others (40.6%) indicated one full unit in their school. Only eight respondents (80.3%) described the presence of one and a half to two or more such units available to their administrative role. Of particular interest is the fact that 12 individuals (12.5%) reported no secretarial service available in their schools.

Respondents generally indicated two types of school schedules used to deliver educational services in their schools. Nine administrators (9.4%) indicated a traditional 5-day cycle, while the vast majority (85.4%) reported a 6-day cycle.

Table 8 depicts the amount of teaching responsibility reported by principals and assistant principals. Clearly, few of these administrators, especially assistant principals, have no teaching responsibility. In fact, 42.1% of principals and 51.3% of assistant principals teach either half time or full time.

Table 8 Administrative teaching responsibility

| | Administrative Role | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Principals | | Assistant Principals | |
| Teaching Responsibility | f | % | f | % |
| None | 12 | 21.1 | 2 | 5.1 |
| Half time | 11 | 19.3 | 12 | 30.8 |
| Full time | 13 | 22.8 | 8 | 20.5 |
| Other | 20 | 35.1 | 17 | 43.6 |
| N = | 56 | | 39 | |

Table 9 reveals the level of other support services available in the schools sampled in this Study. Two important findings emerge from this table. Approximately one-half of the schools in this sample do not have the services of an assistant principal. Secondly, the vast majority (77.0% - 90.0%) of schools sampled do not have department heads.

Table 9 Support services available at the local school

| | Availability | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Yes | | No | |
| Services | f | % | f | % |
| Assistant Principal | 49 | 51.0 | 47 | 49.0 |
| Department Head | | | | |
| English | 19 | 19.8 | 77 | 80.2 |
| Mathematics | 19 | 19.8 | 77 | 80.2 |
| Science | 15 | 15.6 | 81 | 84.4 |
| Social Studies | 11 | 11.5 | 85 | 88.5 |
| French | 6 | 6.3 | 90 | 93.8 |
| Religious Education | 16 | 16.7 | 80 | 83.3 |

N = 96

Guidance services varied considerably in most of the schools included in this survey. Only 12 schools (12.5%) had full-time guidance services, while 23 schools (24.0%) had such service on a half-time or slightly greater than half-time basis. Eighteen respondents (18.8%) reported guidance services on a less than half-time basis, while four schools (4.2%) had no such services. It should also be noted that 24 respondents (25.0%) failed to answer this question.

Relative to the various types of guidance services offered in the schools sampled, administrators provided a picture of considerable variation. Only nine schools (9.4%) had full-time educational therapist services, while 29 other schools (30.2%) had such services available on a part-time basis. Five schools (5.2%) had no such services. Again, 53 administrators failed to answer this question.

When asked to specifically indicate the types of specialist services available to their schools, administrators identified two major groups: core curriculum and special education. Interestingly, a rather high percentage of respondents failed to answer this question, but of those who did, core curriculum services were always considered available to schools. However, special education services were found wanting in the vast majority of cases.

A significant number of schools surveyed did not have the services of instructional resource personnel/librarians (45.8%). In terms of health services, 58 schools (60.4%) had the direct services of a direct nurse, while two schools (2.1%) stated that this service was available upon request from central office. Again, it is interesting to observe that two schools (2.1%) claimed to have no access to health services. In a similar vein, 23 administrators (24.0%) stated that social services were offered within their districts, while only two respondents (2.1%) stated that such services were available directly from their schools. Again, four schools (4.2%) claimed to have no access to such services. In the latter two areas -- health services and social services -- it should again be noted that a relatively large number of respondents failed to reply.

A majority of administrators in this sample indicated that there was a Home and School Association or other Voluntary Parent Group in their school. Fifty-three respondents (55.2%) indicated same, while an interesting 42.7% responded negatively to this question. Major functions performed by these groups were generally of two types -- internal to the school and external to the school.

Activities internal to the school were identified as lunch room support, play ground development, grade level liaison with the school, library volunteers, clerical volunteers, general assistance when required, student support, breakfast programme, organizing specific functions and assisting with general school maintenance. Those activities external to the school included fundraising, dealing with educational issues, P.T.A. activities, sponsoring special programmes (e.g. literacy), hosting informal sessions for parents, lobbying the school board for needed items, improving communication between home and school, participating in extra-curricular activities, guest lecturing and serving on Local Education Committees.

Table 10 portrays the proportion of students transported by regular school board bus to schools included in this Study. Fifteen schools (15.6%) had no students bussed, whereas eight other schools (8.3%) experienced bussing for all students. However, the majority of respondents (79.3%) indicated that at least half or more of their students were transported by regular school board bus.

Table 10 Proportion of students transported by regular school board bus

| Proportion | f | % |
|---|---|---|
| None | 15 | 15.6 |
| < 25% | 5 | 5.1 |
| 25 % - 50% | 18 | 18.6 |
| 51% - 75% | 23 | 24.0 |
| 76% - 99% | 23 | 24.0 |
| All | 8 | 8.3 |
| Missing | 4 | 4.2 |
| N = | 96 | |

Administrators were divided in their responses concerning the availability of computers in their schools for administrative purposes, with 55.2% answering in the affirmative and 44.8% in the negative. Those indicating that such computer access was available to them provided four possible categories of usage: administrative routines (37.5%); programming (7.3%); teaching (2.1%) and communication

(3.1%).

**Profile of Perceived Administrative Practice**

Existing Role Responsibilities and Barriers

Respondents were requested to give their opinion as to whether the role significance of school administrators has changed in the last five years. In responding to this question, they indicated whether, on a 3-point scale, their role has "increased", seen "no change" or "decreased" in relation to twenty-one administrative task areas. The results are depicted in Tables 11 and 12 in terms of percentage frequency distributions for each task area.

Table 11 Principals' perceptions of whether the role significance of school administrators has changed in the last five years with respect to specific task areas.

| | Change in Role Significance (%) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Administrative Task Areas | Increase | No Change | Decrease | Missing Cases | Total |
| School management | 71.9 | 15.8 | 8.8 | 3.5 | 100 |
| System maintenance and change | 57.9 | 28.1 | 10.5 | 3.5 | 100 |
| Student personnel services | 70.2 | 19.3 | 7.0 | 3.5 | 100 |
| Teacher and non-teacher personnel services | 70.2 | 22.8 | 1.8 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Instructional leadership | 70.2 | 21.1 | 5.3 | 3.5 | 100 |
| School improvement efforts | 82.5 | 12.3 | 1.8 | 3.5 | 100 |
| Supervision and evaluation | 70.2 | 24.6 | 1.8 | 3.5 | 100 |
| Principal teacher activities | 66.7 | 28.1 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |
| School-community relations | 66.7 | 28.1 | 1.8 | 3.5 | 100 |
| Professional activities | 59.6 | 35.1 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |
| District-Provincial | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| liaison | 26.3 | 63.2 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Community service | 36.8 | 56.1 | 0.0 | 7.0 | 100 |
| Community expectations | 77.2 | 17.5 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Community involvement in decision making at the school level | 42.1 | 52.6 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Curriculum development | 68.4 | 24.6 | 1.8 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Development of innovative instructional strategies | 71.9 | 22.8 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Assessing educational needs of children | 80.7 | 10.5 | 1.8 | 7.0 | 100 |
| Effectiveness of teachers | 75.4 | 19.3 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Participation in district policy development | 50.9 | 33.3 | 10.5 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Personal and social needs of children | 84.2 | 10.5 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |
| Staff involvement in decision making at the school level | 77.2 | 17.5 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 100 |

N = 57

Table 12 Assistant principals' perceptions of whether the role significance of school administrators has changed in the last five years with respect to specific task areas

| | | Change in Role Significance (%) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Administrative Task Areas | Increase | No Change | Decrease | Missing Cases | Total |
| School management | 59.0 | 33.3 | 5.1 | 2.6 | 100 |
| System maintenance and change | 35.9 | 59.0 | 0.0 | 5.1 | 100 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student personnel services | 56.4 | 41.0 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Teacher and non-teacher personnel services | 33.3 | 64.1 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Instructional leadership | 43.6 | 48.7 | 5.1 | 2.6 | 100 |
| School improvement efforts | 71.8 | 23.1 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Supervision and evaluation | 48.7 | 46.2 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Principal teacher activities | 38.5 | 53.8 | 2.6 | 5.1 | 100 |
| School-community relations | 38.5 | 51.3 | 7.7 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Professional activities | 38.5 | 59.0 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 100 |
| District-Provincial liaison | 17.9 | 71.8 | 7.7 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Community service | 25.6 | 64.1 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 100 |
| Community expectations' | 46.2 | 46.2 | 5.1 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Community involvement in decision making at the school level | 20.5 | 74.4 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Curriculum development | 48.7 | 43.6 | 5.1 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Development of innovative instructional strategies | 48.7 | 48.7 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Assessing educational needs of children | 43.6 | 51.3 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Effectiveness of teachers | 41.0 | 53.8 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participation in district policy development | 17.9 | 71.8 | 7.7 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Personal and social needs of children | 71.8 | 25.6 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 100 |
| Staff involvement in decision making at the school level | 53.8 | 41.0 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100 |

N = 39

It is noteworthy that over 80% of the principals indicated that there has been an increase in their role with respect to involvement with personal and social needs of children, assessing educational needs of children, and in efforts towards school improvement. Other areas highlighted include increases in staff involvement in decision making at the school level, greater concern with teacher effectiveness, increased community expectations of schools, and general school management issues. Very few task areas surveyed showed a significant decrease in emphasis placed upon them by the principal, while about one-third of the respondents indicated little or no change with respect to their involvement in system maintenance and change, principal-teacher activities, professional activities, school-community relations, and their participation in district policy development.

In responding to the same question, about 72% of the assistant principals indicated an increase in school improvement efforts and increased involvement in the personal and social needs of children task areas. However, an examination of the data in Table 12 reveals a much lower percentage increase in the remaining task areas than principals and a higher percentage reporting "no change" in their role during the past five years. This would seem to suggest that with the exception of those tasks indicated above, there has been relatively little change in the role of the assistant principal during the last five years.

Using 5-point scale ranging from (1) not important to (5) extremely important, respondents were requested to indicate their perceptions of the importance of eleven task areas to their role in school-based administration. Further, their responses were solicited from two perspectives for each task area: at the present time and in the next five years. The data are presented in Table 13, using Mean results, to give an overview of each task area.

Table 13 indicates that with the exception of two task areas which are regarded by both principals and assistant principals as "somewhat important" and likely to increase a little -- district/provincial liaison and community service -- the other nine are presently considered important to their role in school-based administration. However, both respondent groups envisage an increase in all task areas within the next five years. Dramatic increases are perceived for their role in task areas relating to school improvement and instructional leadership, including the importance to be placed on supervision and evaluation, and school-community relations.

Utilizing a 5-point scale, respondents were also requested to indicate how satisfied they are with their present role performance in each of ten administrative task areas. The scale ranged from (1) not at all satisfied to (5) very satisfied. The Mean responses are presented in Table 14.

It is interesting to note that principals showed a higher level of satisfaction than assistant principals on all ten administrative task areas, and neither principals nor assistant principals indicated dissatisfaction with their performance in any task area. The highest Mean scores were in the "3" category (not sure/neutral) for both groups and specified General School Management, School Maintenance and

Change, School Improvement Efforts, and School-Community Relations. However, neither group showed a Mean score of 4 "somewhat satisfied" or 5 "very satisfied". The researchers interpret this to mean that involvement in a few task areas is approaching some level of satisfaction, yet there is obvious room for improvement in all task areas.

Table 13 Principals' and assistant principals' perceived importance of specific task areas at present and within the next five years

| Administrative Task Areas | Principals<br>Present Time | <br>In Next 5 Years | Assistant Principals<br>Present Time | <br>In Next 5 Years |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General School Management | 3.78 | 3.88 | 3.38 | 3.58 |
| System Maintenance and Change | 3.42 | 3.76 | 3.03 | 3.46 |
| Student Personnel Services | 3.68 | 3.98 | 3.18 | 3.76 |
| Teacher and Non-Teacher Personnel Services | 3.39 | 3.63 | 2.71 | 3.16 |
| Instructional Leadership | 4.00 | 4.54 | 3.36 | 4.16 |
| School Improvement | 4.09 | 4.70 | 3.72 | 4.39 |
| Supervision and Evaluation | 3.93 | 4.32 | 3.13 | 3.94 |
| School-Community Relations | 3.68 | 4.23 | 3.08 | 3.79 |
| District/Provincial Liaison | 2.84 | 2.90 | 2.22 | 2.53 |
| Community Service | 3.08 | 3.48 | 2.43 | 2.83 |
| Fund Raising | 3.32 | 3.64 | 2.76 | 3.15 |

N = 96

Table 14 Respondents' perceptions of the importance of selected task areas to their role in school-based administration

| Administrative Task Areas | Mean Scores<br>Principals | <br>Assistant Principals |
|---|---|---|
| General School Management | 3.98 | 3.51 |
| School Maintenance and Change | 3.78 | 3.28 |
| Student Personnel Services | 3.50 | 3.46 |
| Teacher and Non-Teacher Personnel Services | 3.48 | 3.41 |
| Instructional Leadership | 3.42 | 3.05 |
| School Improvement Efforts | 3.84 | 3.38 |
| Supervision and Evaluation | 3.39 | 2.84 |
| School-Community Relations | 3.77 | 3.35 |
| District-Provincial Liaison | 3.07 | 2.89 |
| Community Service | 3.46 | 3.11 |
| N = | 57 | 39 |

Administrators were asked to indicate three areas of administrative responsibility in which they believed their need for professional development was highest. **Improving staff performance** emerged as the number one priority. Two areas were ranked number two -- **assessment/evaluation of instructional programme** and **planning and implementation of curriculum goals**, while the number three priority consisted of **improving student performance**.

Administrators were also asked how useful the periodic meetings between principals and superintendent/central office personnel were relative to communication and professional development. In terms of communication, 86.5% indicated that such meetings were somewhat to very useful. However, regarding any professional development utility, 58.3% stated that such meetings were somewhat useful while an additional 18.8% considered these meetings to be not at all useful.

Respondents indicated how strongly they felt they were part of the overall administration of their districts. Fifty-five respondents (57.3%) said they felt they were somewhat part of district administration, but a significant 29 others (30.2%) indicated that they did not feel they were part of overall district administration at all.

Table 15 describes administrator satisfaction with their in-school instructional leadership role. There is evidence of dissatisfaction expressed with this task area of school administration. Here, 59 administrators (61.5%) were either somewhat dissatisfied or very dissatisfied. In fact, only 20 respondents (20.8%) were somewhat satisfied with this aspect of their role.

Assistant Principals' Responses.

The final section of this questionnaire solicited responses from assistant principals only. The first question asked respondents to indicate the proportion of their role assigned for teaching and for administrative duties. Table 16 lists the responses to this question. A majority of assistant principals (69.6%) had teaching duties comprising at least one half or more of their time. Twelve individuals reported teaching responsibilities utilizing from three quarters to all of their time. However, administrative duties presented a different picture.

Table 15 Administrator satisfaction with their in-school instructional leadership role

| Level of Satisfaction | f | % |
|---|---|---|
| Very satisfied | 8 | 8.3 |
| Somewhat satisfied | 20 | 20.8 |
| Not sure/neutral | 3 | 3.1 |
| Somewhat dissatisfied | 48 | 50.0 |
| Very dissatisfied | 6 | 6.3 |
| Missing | 6 | 6.3 |
| N = | 96 | |

Table 16 Proportion of role assigned for teaching and administrative duties (assistant principals)

| | Teaching Duties | | Administrative Duties | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Proportion | f | % | f | % |
| None | 2 | 5.1 | 4 | 10.3 |
| < 25% | 1 | 2.6 | 10 | 25.8 |
| 25% - 50% | 8 | 20.5 | 17 | 43.8 |
| 51% - 75% | 15 | 38.6 | 2 | 5.1 |
| 76% - 99% | 8 | 20.7 | 1 | 2.6 |
| All | 4 | 10.3 | 2 | 5.1 |
| Other | 1 | 2.6 | 3 | 7.7 |
| N = | 39 | | 39 | |

Only five respondents (12.8%) reported one half or more of their time so consumed, while 31 (79.9%) reported less than half of their time to no time being devoted to administrative duties. Perhaps this fact alone explains why 46.2% of responding assistant principals reported little or no satisfaction with their present role. In fact, only 25.6% stated that they were very satisfied with their status quo in this regard.

Relative to how strongly assistant principals felt they were part of the overall administration of their school, 36 individuals (92.3%) stated that they felt that they were at least somewhat part of their school administration. However, three respondents said that they did not feel that they were so involved at all.

Table 17 describes assistant principals' satisfaction with their in-school instructional leadership role. Seventeen respondents (43.6%) reported that they were currently somewhat to very satisfied with this particular administrative task area. However, 20 individuals (51.2%) revealed considerable dissatisfaction with this dimension of their role.

Table 17 Assistant principal satisfaction with their in-school instructional leadership role

| Level of Satisfaction | f | % |
|---|---|---|
| Very satisfied | 1 | 2.6 |
| Somewhat satisfied | 16 | 41.0 |
| Not sure/neutral | 1 | 2.6 |
| Somewhat dissatisfied | 13 | 33.3 |
| Very dissatisfied | 7 | 17.9 |
| Missing | 1 | 2.6 |
| N = | 39 | |

## Preferred Changes to Improve Role Effectiveness

Principals and assistant principals were asked for their perceptions concerning preferred changes to improve their role effectiveness in five administrative task areas: General School Management, Personnel Services, Instructional Leadership, School-Community Relations and Management of Professional Activities. Each of these major task areas contained a number of sub- tasks. In particular, respondents were requested to indicate **the amount of time** they thought **should be spent on average** on each sub-task, utilizing a Likert-type 4-point scale.

Code: 1 = none 2 = a minimum amount
3 = a fair amount 4 = a considerable amount

Data for each task area are presented in tabular form, utilizing Means and Standard Deviations. Additional comment is provided for clarification where deemed appropriate. Tables 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22 portray these findings.

Table 18 The amount of time principals and assistant principals think should be spent on average in a typical school year on general school management

| Sub-task | Mean | S.D. |
|---|---|---|
| Scheduling/Timetabling | | |
| Principals | 2.46 | .5382 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.49 | .7208 |
| Budget Administration | | |
| Principals | 2.54 | .6596 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.49 | .6833 |
| Facilities Management | | |
| Principals | 2.16 | .5649 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.33 | .5298 |
| Policy Development/Implementation | | |
| Principals | 3.29 | .7372 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.30 | .5691 |
| Planning Staff Meetings | | |
| Principals | 2.85 | .6723 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.71 | .6047 |
| Assigning Teacher Responsibilities | | |
| Principals | 2.70 | .6301 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.54 | .5547 |
| Reviewing Student Records | | |
| Principals | 2.72 | .6479 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.66 | .6623 |
| Fund Raising | | |
| Principals | 1.80 | .7425 |
| Assistant Principals | 1.51 | .6014 |
| Clerical Duties | | |
| Principals | 1.91 | .7453 |
| Assistant Principals | 1.79 | .6951 |
| Conflict Resolution | | |
| Principals | 2.56 | .5981 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.67 | .5774 |
| Duties Assigned by Central Office | | |
| Principals | 2.21 | .7004 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.10 | .5523 |
| Duties Assigned by Department of Education | | |
| Principals | 2.14 | .6106 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.07 | .5324 |

N = 96

Table 19 The amount of time principals and assistant principals think should be spent on average in a typical school year on personnel services

| Sub-Task | Mean | S.D. |
|---|---|---|
| Dissemination of Information | | |
| Principals | 2.63 | .5865 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.74 | .6373 |
| Teacher Evaluation | | |
| Principals | 3.14 | .6665 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.12 | .7320 |
| Supervision of Students | | |
| Principals | 2.49 | .7820 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.71 | .8255 |
| Discipline/Student Management | | |
| Principals | 2.75 | .6059 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.95 | .6047 |
| Student Control | | |
| Principals | 2.54 | .6288 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.74 | .7152 |
| Co-Curricular Activities | | |
| Principals | 2.43 | .7075 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.64 | .5843 |
| Union Negotiations | | |
| Principals | 1.47 | .6298 |
| Assistant Principals | 1.50 | .6040 |
| Student Guidance | | |
| Principals | 2.61 | .7259 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.92 | .6643 |
| Facilitating Staff Involvement | | |
| Principals | 3.12 | .5791 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.28 | .6468 |
| Student Evaluation/Placement | | |
| Principals | 2.84 | .7574 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.02 | .7066 |
| Supervising Substitute Teachers | | |
| Principals | 2.37 | .6977 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.23 | .4268 |
| Familiarizing Staff Regarding Legal Implications | | |
| Principals | 2.64 | .7194 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.28 | .6047 |
| Student Assistants | | |
| Principals | 2.27 | .7505 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.34 | .7081 |
| Student Interns from MUN | | |
| Principals | 2.23 | .7383 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.18 | .6516 |

N = 96

Table 20 The amount of time principals and assistant principals think should be spent on average in a typical school year on instructional leadership

| Sub-Task | Mean | S.D. |
|---|---|---|
| Goal Development | | |
| Principals | 3.36 | .6162 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.33 | .6213 |
| Creating Effective School Climate | | |
| Principals | 3.71 | .4533 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.66 | .5298 |
| Educational Programme Improvement | | |
| Principals | 3.63 | .5552 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.56 | .6404 |
| Involving Others in Decision Making | | |
| Principals | 3.28 | .5902 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.20 | .6147 |
| Supervision/Evaluation of Tenured Teachers | | |
| Principals | 2.91 | .7387 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.71 | .7679 |
| Supervision/Evaluation of Non-Teaching Staff | | |
| Principals | 2.73 | .8768 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.41 | .6774 |
| Curriculum Development | | |
| Principals | 3.29 | .7559 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.30 | .6941 |
| Organizing/Directing Instructional Programme | | |
| Principals | 3.28 | .7735 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.38 | .6734 |
| Serving as Curriculum Leader | | |
| Principals | 3.31 | .7358 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.33 | .6623 |
| Assessing Needs/Goals of the School | | |
| Principals | 3.51 | .5386 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.33 | .5774 |
| Serving as a Catalyst | | |
| Principals | 3.35 | .7194 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.33 | .6213 |
| Acting as a Change Agent | | |
| Principals | 3.30 | .6584 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.23 | .7057 |
| Maintaining Strong Collegial Relationships | | |
| Principals | 3.40 | .6228 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.28 | .5595 |

N = 96

The total number of respondents to the above task area responsibilities for General School Management included 57 principals and 39 assistant principals. An examination of the Means indicates that both principals and assistant principals think that they should spend most of their time on tasks associated with policy development and implementation (X = 3.29 and X = 3.30 respectively). In fact, this was the only general school management task area responsibility with a mean above 3.00, which showed a desire to spend from "a fair amount" to "a considerable amount" of time on any one task area responsibility.

With respect to the desire to spend a "minimum amount" to a "fair amount" of time on specific sub-task areas, principals prefer to spend more time for planning staff meetings, reviewing student records, assigning teacher responsibilities, conflict resolution and budget administration. It is interesting to note that while assistant principals feel likewise for most of these sub-task areas, they wish to have greater involvement than that indicated by principals in scheduling/timetabling, facilities management, conflict resolution, and policy development and implementation. This might be interpreted as a desire by assistant principals to have more meaningful involvement in the actual day-to-day components of school operation that go beyond routine administrivia.

However, the data clearly indicate a strong desire by both principals and assistant principals to spend much less time on fund raising and routine clerical duties. It is obvious from this Table 18, as well from numerous written observations, that principals and assistant principals resent having to spend so much time raising money to fund various school co-curricular activities as well as to purchase instructional supplies and equipment. These efforts, combined with a shortage of secretarial/clerical support service, seriously impinges upon the time available for principals and assistant principals to devote to their instructional development role.

In the area of personnel services, respondents indicated their perceptions in the amount of time they think should be spent on average, in a typical school year, for each of the 15 sub-tasks specified. It is interesting to note that in only two of the 15 tasks -- teacher evaluation and facilitating staff involvement in the over-all operation of the school -- was the Mean above the 3.00 level. This clearly indicates the importance placed upon the need by both principals and assistant principals to spend more time on the evaluation of teacher performance, and to provide more opportunities for teachers to become involved in decision making at the individual school level.

With the exception of union negotiations, which are conducted on behalf of all members of the bargaining unit by the Newfoundland Teachers' Association, both principals and assistant principals indicated that they should spend more than a minimum of time on discipline/student management and student control, student evaluation/placement, student guidance and the dissemination of information. In task areas associated with student management/control/supervision/guidance, guidance and evaluation, it is noteworthy that assistant principals expressed a desire to spend more time than did principals on matters associated with this dimension of administration. Again, this might be interpreted as an indication that assistant principals desire a more meaningful role in administration.

Principals obviously realize the importance of familiarizing staff with the legal implications of teacher behaviour, as well as the value of having effective ways of disseminating information to parents and students. The data indicate that both principals and assistant principals think a fair amount of time should be spent in ensuring the dissemination of information.

With respect to the instructional leadership role, there were thirteen sub-task areas listed. On eleven of these, both principals and assistant principals indicated that "a fair amount" to a "considerable amount" of time should be spent on each during a typical school year. The highest Means were recorded in the areas of creating an effective school climate, educational programme improvement, and assessing needs/goals of the school. This indicates a realization of the importance of school climate and the strong desire for over-all school improvement. However, while principals and assistant principals obviously feel quite strongly about the necessity to spend more time on all sub-task areas listed under instructional leadership, implicit throughout the entire data is their perception that other routine administrative tasks inhibit their ability to devote sufficient time to this role.

Associated with the perceived need for instructional leadership, even though a lesser amount of time is deemed necessary, both principals and assistant principals re-affirm their perception that a fair amount of time should also be spent on the supervision/evaluation aspect of their role.

Table 21 The amount of time principals and assistant principals think should be spent on average in a typical school year on school-community relations

| Sub-Task | Mean | S.D. |
|---|---|---|
| Parent/Community Contacts | | |
| Principals | 3.32 | .6023 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.33 | .4776 |
| Serving as School Spokesperson | | |
| Principals | 3.21 | .5629 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.10 | .7180 |
| Establishing Teaching Accountability | | |
| Principals | 3.12 | .7089 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.92 | .7741 |
| Assessing Community Responsibilities | | |
| Principals | 2.65 | .7674 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.55 | .6857 |
| Serving in a Public Relations Role | | |
| Principals | 2.95 | .6660 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.84 | .6704 |
| Deciding on the Nature of School-Community Relations | | |
| Principals | 2.78 | .7255 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.85 | .7448 |
| Deciding on How to Involve Parents in School Activities | | |
| Principals | 2.90 | .6991 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.98 | .6684 |
| Evaluating the Effectiveness of School/Community Relations | | |
| Principals | 2.89 | .7306 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.89 | .8206 |

N = 96

Eight sub-task areas were listed under the heading of school-community relations as shown in Table 21 above. Both principals and assistant principals indicated that most of their time in this regard should be spent on creating and maintaining contacts with parents and the community-at-large. It is also deemed important that each assume the role of being a spokesperson for the school and spend a fair amount of time in that sub-task. Time also needs to be devoted to planning an effective school-community relations programme, deciding on ways by which to best involve parents in various school activities.

It is also interesting to note that both principals and assistant principals perceive the need for teacher accountability and to periodically assess the effectiveness of the over-all school-community relations programme.

Table 22 The amount of time principals and assistant principals think should be spent on average in a typical school year on the management of professional activities

| Sub-Task | Mean | S.D. |
|---|---|---|
| Coordination of District, Provincial and Federal Professional Activities | | |
| Principals | 2.10 | .6991 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.23 | .8522 |
| Involvement in Outside Professional Activities | | |
| Principals | 2.46 | .6866 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.38 | .6331 |
| Fulfilling District Office Professional Activities | | |
| Principals | 2.64 | .8343 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.53 | .8223 |
| Engaging in Personal Professional Development | | |
| Principals | 3.17 | .6846 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.10 | .7274 |
| Provision of Professional Experiences for Staff | | |
| Principals | 3.05 | .6923 |
| Assistant Principals | 3.17 | .7208 |
| Liaising Between Staff and Post-Secondary Institutions | | |
| Principals | 2.10 | .6731 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.15 | .6704 |
| Arranging Inter-Staff Visitation/Teacher Exchange | | |
| Principals | 2.16 | .5913 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.12 | .6147 |
| Facilitating Dialogue Between Teachers and Professionals | | |
| Principals | 2.42 | .6800 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.48 | .7905 |
| Membership in Professional Groups | | |
| Principals | 2.56 | .6818 |
| Assistant Principals | 2.64 | .7429 |

N = 96

As shown in Table 22 above, respondents were asked to indicate the amount of time that they think should be spent in managing their own professional activities. Of the nine sub-tasks in this area, both principals and assistant principals rated time for personal professional development and provision of professional experiences for staff members as being those activities on which they should spend most time. Next in order of time expenditure were duties associated with fulfilling district office professional activities, facilitating dialogue between teachers and other professionals, and involvement in outside professional activities. They indicated that minimum time should be spend on coordinating professional development activities outside their own schools and in liaising with other institutions.

Respondents also indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with sixteen statements relative to specific administrative practices. Again, they utilized a 5-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Table 23 presents the Mean scores for both groups.

Table 23 Principals' and assistant principals' extent of agreement or disagreement with specific administrative practices

| Specific Administrative Practices | Mean Scores Principals | Mean Scores Assistant Principals |
|---|---|---|
| As a general policy, there should be a mandatory transfer cycle within the district for all school administrators | 3.04 | 2.82 |
| Administrator transfer cycle should require a transfer every four or five years | 3.11 | 2.94 |
| A mandatory transfer cycle for administrators would require a separate salary scale or that administrative allowances would be unaffected | 3.41 | 3.50 |
| There should be a system of teacher transfer based on a mandatory cycle of five to eight years | 3.30 | 3.00 |
| Present procedures and criteria for the selection of principals are satisfactory | 3.29 | 2.97 |
| There is ample opportunity for the professional development of principals | 2.46 | 2.49 |
| There should be a Leadership Centre established at Memorial University to plan and provide professional development activities for administrators, in cooperation with the other provincial agencies | 4.48 | 4.44 |
| There should be a special pre-service Administrators' Course required of all those who wish to become eligible for administrative positions | 4.32 | 5.05 |
| Training in the area of teacher evaluation is adequate | 2.36 | 1.97 |
| Both principals and assistant principals should be involved in the evaluation of teachers | 4.24 | 4.36 |
| Department heads should be involved in the evaluation of teachers | 3.61 | 3.31 |
| Present procedures for the evaluation of principals are satisfactory | 2.98 | 2.36 |
| Principals should remain in the same collective bargaining unit as teachers | 3.43 | 3.87 |
| Overall, the role of the principal as an instructional leader is seriously | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| hampered by school management duties | 4.36 | 4.23 |
| Principals should be assigned teaching responsibilities as part of their role | 2.50 | 2.41 |
| The present bonus structure for principals and assistant principals is adequate | 1.84 | 2.02 |
| N = | 56 | 39 |

There appears to be uncertainty by both principals and assistant principals as to whether there should be a system of mandatory transfer for school administrators. This may be due to the fact that such a concept would be a new one in this Province, and responses seem to indicate that the idea would need to be thoroughly examined before such a policy could be successfully implemented. However, both groups also indicate some dissatisfaction with the present procedures and criteria for the selection of principals and the opportunities for their professional development.

It is noteworthy that both respondent groups agree with the need for the establishment of a Leadership Centre at Memorial University; that both principals and assistant principals should be involved in the evaluation of teachers; that there should be a pre-service Administrators' Course for aspiring administrators, and that the role of the principal as instructional leader is seriously hampered by school management duties. At the same time, both training in the area of teacher evaluation and the present bonus structures for principals and assistant principals are deemed inadequate. As well, there is some disagreement with the idea that principals should be assigned teaching responsibilities as part of their role.

When asked to identify the three most time-consuming administrative tasks of their role, assistant principal responses were generally associated with three major categories: administrative procedures (38.5%) teacher related (23.1%) and student related (38.5%). A sample of responses for each of these categories follows.

**Administrative procedures** included office routines, general school operation, budgets and fund raising. **Teacher related** tasks encompassed supervision and evaluation, dealing with substitute teachers, classroom visitations and dealing with teachers' needs. **Student related** tasks involved discipline, dealing with absenteeism, extra curricular activities and student guidance.

When asked what major changes within a restructured Newfoundland educational system could be recommended to improve the effectiveness of school-based administration, administrators' responses generally comprised four changed categories: process (21.9%), role (31.3%), school (6.3%) and district (17.7%). A total of 22 individuals failed to respond to this question. The following represents sample responses for each of these categories.

**Process** changes included adequate outside class preparation time, extended school year for administrators, more time to work on staff development; and opportunities for a team approach to school management. **Role** changes encompassed more collaboration between administrators and staff, week-end retreats, providing assistant principals for all schools, and greater role autonomy. Suggested **school** changes involved the inclusion of full-time resource persons on school staffs, a decreased student/teacher ratio, increased decision making at the local school level, and increased special services for the local school. **District** changes were identified as more adequate funding, development of educational regions, greater cooperation between school boards, and the locating of board personnel in individual schools.

## IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CHANGE

This Background Paper has focused on one particular dimension of Newfoundland Denominational Education, namely, school-based administration. Information was solicited from a number of American and Canadian educational jurisdictions to help develop an understanding of current barriers and innovative practices associated therewith. Additionally, a questionnaire was distributed to a sample of principals and assistant principals throughout Newfoundland and Labrador. The sum total of this insight, along with that derived from focus meetings with a selected group of department heads and a review of related literature and research relative to school-based administration, has allowed a number of conclusions to be drawn and recommendations drafted concerning improvement of local school management effectiveness throughout this Province. Each of the concerns posed in the Study Focus pertaining to the changing nature and complexity of school administration is addressed in its respective order.

### Conclusions

Concern 1: To what extent does the time and energy currently devoted to maintaining the school system serve as a barrier to effective management?

Evidence acquired in this Study suggests that an inordinate amount of time devoted to simply maintaining the school/system has seriously impinged on all other task areas considered critical to effective management of Newfoundland and Labrador schools. The negative impact of this situation is compounded by the presence of numerous small schools with their small staffs and small enrolments wherein a multitude of specialist functions must be fulfilled by a few individuals acting in a generalist capacity. It can be concluded therefore, that school-based administrators in this Province presently do not have the time to do more that merely maintain their schools. Steps will have to be taken to allow sufficient time and professional development opportunities for principals, assistant principals and department heads (where available) to facilitate their instructional leadership role along with the fulfilment of duties associated with other crucial administrative task areas.

Since so much of the principals' time is consumed by non-instructional matters, it is obvious that their primary role of providing instructional leadership cannot be effectively addressed. Consequently, means must be found to enhance this role component by minimizing the demands placed upon it from organizing, managing, communicating, reporting and generally dealing with a variety of stakeholders both within and without the system. Lack of adequate secretarial assistance, relatively heavy teaching assignments and the unavailability of complementary administrative roles (assistant principals and/or department heads) in many cases serve to further limit the effectiveness of the principals' role responsibilities to .that of general school management. Quite obviously this leads to conflicting expectations concerning the Newfoundland and Labrador principalship. In effect, time devoted to ancillary activities is currently increasing to the point where it can be concluded that effective time management strategies linked with a clear view of priorities for principals are required if there is to be optimal potential realized in this administrative resource.

In general, the evidence suggests that although all administrative task areas are essential to school operation, the constraints under which principals currently function serve as major impediments to developing and maintaining an otherwise effective and efficient educational system. This points to the need for major change in the present organizational structure of school management, particularly as it affects the role of principals.

Extremely heavy teaching assignments and administrative role responsibilities determined by local circumstances have also resulted in limiting the meaningful involvement of assistant principals in a majority of school management task areas. This serves to curtail the otherwise positive contribution to school-based administration which might be derived from a role theoretically designed to complement the principalship. This situation contributes to a general feeling of detachment from overall school administration by a majority of these assistant principals.

Assistant principals appear anxious to experience considerable expansion of their present role to include scheduling/timetabling, facilities management, conflict resolution, and policy development and implementation. This can be interpreted as a desire by these administrators to experience more meaningful involvement in local school management beyond mere administrivia. In particular, it can be concluded that assistant principals are also anxious to realize enlargement of their instructional development role. However, this can become reality only through a general alteration of their current administrative responsibilities to minimize the time-consuming tasks associated with administrative procedure, teacher related and student related matters. Again, it must be stressed that the evidence points to a relatively undeveloped and under utilized assistant principalship role in the Newfoundland denominational education system. There can be no doubt that these role incumbents are anxious to be part of a redesigned school-based administrative structure -- one that might allow them to function as part of an administrative team in local school management.

Based on discussions with a sample of department heads and examination of formal role descriptions, it becomes obvious that the role of department head can be represented on a continuum ranging from a mere title assigned to a classroom teacher to a formalized administrative position at the local school level. The role is changing from being primarily a coordinator of curriculum and personnel to one of being an integral member of the school's administrative team.

According to official school system documents, the department head is viewed as a key person in the over-all school operation, and plays an important role in the development, implementation, and evaluation of educational philosophy, aims and objectives, and day-to-day policy and procedures. Document analysis indicates that the extent to which a high degree of school effectiveness is attained and maintained is largely dependent upon the department head's leadership role in the school. In this regard, the department head plays an important part in the daily functioning of the school in that prescribed duties and responsibilities relate to supervisory, administrative and curricular areas. Further, the subject expertise and professional role of persons who hold this position enhances the total operation of the school. The department head, therefore, is often seen as a vital link between the school, school board, department of education and other reference groups. It appears from official role descriptions then, that the department head is part of the schools' administrative team -- a key member of the decision making process.

Perhaps a more realistic view can be drawn from the perceptions of department heads concerning their involvement in school-based administration. From discussions with a selected group of department heads, the researchers conclude that many currently view their role as very similar to that of classroom teachers. Generally, administrative responsibilities are performed in addition to a regular teaching assignment, and there are few unassigned teaching periods to carry out department head duties. However, one major difference lies in the fact that there are usually no home room duties attached to this role. School size is probably the single determinant of specific responsibilities assigned to department heads, with the principal usually being the "real determiner" of role duties. This practice appears to be the norm throughout the Province.

In most schools, department heads are expected to be available at their schools prior to the beginning of a given term and for two or three days at the end of the year in order to deal with curriculum-specific administrative matters. Although these individuals do hold membership on school advisory councils, staff members do not view department heads as either managers or administrators. Department heads themselves are reluctant to function as part of a school administrative team in task areas such as teacher evaluation, believing that such involvement would create animosity among their respective staff members and destroy rapport within the department.

Regular meetings are held with central office coordinators and other department heads throughout the school district. Memos are also exchanged between department heads in the same school, suggesting that these role occupants act as information conduits for the system. In addition, a collegial forum exists between department heads from various schools in a district. Currently, there is some liaison between high school department heads and local feeder schools in some districts. However, the effectiveness of this form of communication becomes a time management issue over which department heads have little control.

In general, problems normally associated with the department head role intensify in small rural school settings throughout the Province. Poor role definition, principal preoccupation with business management rather than instructional leadership, and inadequate department head bonus structure and heavy teaching loads combine to lessen the effectiveness of this educational role in school-based management. It can therefore be concluded that department heads generally function at arms length from many of the task areas normally associated with school administration. It can also be concluded that department heads are interested in exploring opportunities for creating a higher priority for their position in local school management and, in particular, furthering the development of their instructional leadership function.

Concern 2: Relative to the administrative task areas of general school management, personnel services, instructional leadership, school-community relations and management of professional activities, about how much time should be spent on average by school administrators in a typical school year?

With respect to the general school management task area, both principals and assistant principals indicated a desire to spend "a fair amount" to "a considerable amount" of time on policy development and implementation. However, they wish to spend far less time on fund raising and routine clerical duties. Yet, it is also clear from the data that present restrictions on available support services and heavy teaching assignments seriously inhibit the ability of role incumbents to do otherwise.

In the area of personnel services, both principals and assistant principals perceive the need to spend much more time on teacher evaluation, facilitating staff involvement in decision making and student evaluation/placement. They also realize the importance of spending a fair amount of time on information dissemination, discipline/student management/control/guidance and co-curricular activity programmes.

Both principals and assistant principals indicated that they should spend most of their time on tasks associated with the instructional leadership role. It is interesting that assistant principals perceive spending less time than principals on supervision and evaluation, suggesting in their view that this task is primarily within the role of the principalship. On average, both respondent groups again strongly reinforce their assertion that much more time needs to be spent on this task area than occurs at present.

The importance of school-community relations in the over-all operation of the school is realized by both principals and assistant principals. It would appear that administrators spend a fair amount of time in trying to establish good communications with parents and appreciate the necessity of effective public relations. However, they contend that other constraints of the job limit the time available to spend on this task area.

In the area concerned with management of professional activities, both respondent groups indicated their strongest desire was to have greater opportunity for personal professional development and to be able to provide similar professional development experiences for their staffs. Again, this emphasizes the perceived need by administrators for ongoing in-service activities as a natural part of their role. Such a need was also clearly identified by department heads, in discussions with the researchers, and the evidence from all three respondent groups indicates a serious vacuum exists in the Province at present with respect to meeting such needs.

Concern 3: Has the role significance of school administrators relative to the five task areas identified changed in the last five years?

The five main task areas under examination were the following: General School Management, Personnel Services, Instructional Leadership, School-Community Relations and Management of Professional Activities. In turn, these were broken down into a total of twenty-one specific sub-tasks and the perceptions of principals and assistant principals sought as to whether the role significance of each task had changed in the past five years.

From the data analysis, the researchers conclude that most principals perceive that their role has increased in practically all of the task areas. The only exceptions were in their involvement with district-provincial liaison activities, community service and perceptions of little or no change in community involvement in school-level decision making. This would seem to indicate that the overall workload of principals has increased dramatically and, coupled with ever-increasing pressures for greater accountability in times of scarce resources and fiscal constraints, the job is very onerous indeed.

It is also obvious that principals perceive the need for greater involvement in meaningful school improvement programmes, an increased emphasis on supervision and evaluation, and continuing efforts to assess curricula in view of the educational needs of children. In essence then, while there is clear cognizance of the need to assume instructional leadership roles, principals claim their ability to do this is seriously hampered by general management-type duties. They express a strong desire to rid themselves of administrivia in order to have the time to concentrate on better meeting the needs of students through efforts at overall school improvement.

It is also important to keep in mind that assistant principals report an increase in several aspects of their role over this time period. This is particularly the case for sub-tasks associated with school improvement efforts and activities involving the personal and social needs of children. However, it is also obvious that the role of the assistant principal has changed very little during the past five years in most of the other task areas specified, even though there is a strong desire by assistant principals to have greater involvement in the overall administration of schools. Perhaps ways and means could be found to enlarge the role of assistant principals by re-assignment of some tasks presently performed by principals, thereby giving both groups more opportunity to increase the level of satisfaction with their respective roles.

Concern 4: What role importance do school administrators attach to their performance in the five administrative task areas identified?

The five administrative task areas referred to above were broken down into eleven more specific tasks as shown in Table 13. It is noteworthy that both principals and assistant principals perceive that the importance of nine of these tasks will increase over the next five years -- the exceptions are with district/provincial liaison and community service. Again, the perceived importance of the instructional leadership role and involvement in school improvement heads the list. It is also interesting to note that both respondent groups see an increase in efforts expended on fund-raising activities, and this might be interpreted as a foreboding of increased fiscal constraints and scarcity of resources.

If indeed these predictions hold true, then the implications for the role of principals and assistant principals are obvious. Firstly, role incumbents will almost certainly be subjected to increased-on-the-job stress as the call for greater accountability continues to escalate. Secondly, the amount of assigned teaching time for school-based administrators must be significantly reduced if they are to have any chance whatever of fulfiling meaningful instructional leadership roles. Thirdly, means must be found to provide strong support services in the form of clerical and secretarial assistance, computers for administrative efficiency and other technological aids. Fourthly, the researchers conclude that there is a strong felt need for the provision of professional development opportunities for administrators. While many administrators are well qualified in the sense of holding higher level teaching certificates and graduate degrees, there is a need to be kept up-to-date on current trends and innovations within the field of education, as well as acquiring specialized training. Hence, the establishment of some kind of centre for leadership development, perhaps based at Memorial University, would help fill a present void and there is much evidence to support the need for such a centre.

Concern 5: How satisfied are administrators with their present role performance in each of the five administrative task areas identified?

Principals generally demonstrated greater satisfaction with their role performance than did assistant principals across all administrative task areas examined. However, neither group expressed strong dissatisfaction with their role performance in any task area, suggesting that some adjustment or redesigning of these two roles may be sufficient to positively affect perceptions of role performance. Since the most frequently occurring questionnaire response to this concern was "not sure/neutral", it might be concluded that a fair degree of role uncertainty exists in the minds of most respondents and that unless some redesigning of roles is carried out quickly, any perceived satisfaction with role performance could diminish. In fact, role dissatisfaction currently expressed by assistant principals might worsen.

Department heads also reveal some dissatisfaction with the current status of their role in school management. They convey a sense of discontentment with the fact that their role is subject to definition and interpretation by individual principals and that a great majority of their time is utilized in mere administrative routines, preventing them from meaningful participation in most task areas associated with school management. This suggests the need to redesign this administrative role and devise procedures whereby department heads can participate more fully in all facets of school-based administration.

A review of current duties performed by a sample of these role occupants suggests that department heads are primarily occupied in two administrative task areas, namely, general school management and instructional leadership. Utilizing the five task areas associated with school-based administration -- general school management, personnel services, instructional leadership, school-community relations, and management of professional activities -- the duties assigned thereto are as follows:

(1) **General school management**
To open lines of communication with other department heads, consultants and elementary school teachers.
Holding subject meetings to discuss departmental business -- both administrative and curricular.
Preparing annual budget for supplies and equipment.
Maintaining records, etc.
Serving on various school committees.
Assisting the principal in such areas as scheduling and placement of teachers, etc.
Providing input regarding development of school policies.
Examining and evaluating standards and measurement within the department.
Attending department head meetings.
Monitoring pupil registration and attendance.
Liaising with feeder school system.

(2) **Personnel services**
Providing input on teacher appraisal practices and monitoring student progress within subject specific areas.
Providing orientation to new staff and substitute teachers.
Serving as communication links within the school concerning school and district policies.

(3) **Instructional leadership**
Assisting teachers in the department to prepare "course outlines" and preparing "course descriptions".
Assisting teachers in improving their teaching methods and lesson planning.
Reviewing selection of text books.
Adapting programmes to the needs of students.
Evaluating curriculum implementation.
Monitoring courses in preparation for exams.
Fulfilling teaching duties.
Helping facilitate teacher in-service.
Acting as curriculum leader.
Conducting demonstration lessons within the department.

Initiating programme planning to better utilize school library resources.

(4) **School-community relations**

Planning school concerts, science fairs, etc.

Assisting with school-wide events/activities.

(5) **Management of professional activities**

Serving on school, district and Provincial Curriculum Committees.

Assisting in the on-going professional development of personnel within the department.

Overall, administrator concern with role performance is again portrayed in both principal and assistant principal requests for professional development assistance in the following areas of administrative responsibility: improving staff performance, assessment/evaluation of instructional programme, planning and implementation of curriculum goals, and improving student performance. This expression of need suggests a strong desire on the part of these role incumbents to have their responsibilities altered such that an individual's time which is now consumed by administrative routines might be better distributed through cooperative endeavour in the context of local school management. Moreover, a concomitant outgrowth of such change could result in an increased feeling by principals, assistant principals and department heads of being more directly a part of the overall administration of their schools and districts respectively.

All three administrative groups -- principals, assistant principals and department heads -- have expressed considerable dissatisfaction with their instructional leadership role. In particular, it can be concluded that both principals and assistant principals are generally precluded from satisfactory involvement in this task area simply because of the demands placed on their time by general school management, while department heads prefer role expansion in this area if some means can be found to decrease their teaching responsibilities. Again, if effective programme delivery is to be realized at the local school level, an effort must be made to change existing administrative role practice from the current unilateral tendency to a more collegial team approach in school-based management. This effort could do much to re-channel these roles in their rightful orientation -- that of instructional leadership in an effective and efficiently managed local school setting. However, this points out the need for changes in the current structure of local school management.

Concern 6: What innovative efforts would school administrators like to see undertaken to enhance the effectiveness of school-based administration?

Principals, assistant principals and department heads are desirous of experiencing considerable improvement in their present roles as a first step in enhancing the effectiveness of school-based administration. A number of conclusions can be drawn from their statements. Principals and assistant principals are somewhat uncertain of the need for and implications of any system of mandatory transfer for school administrators. Any consideration of this innovation would have to be thoroughly examined before being implemented in Newfoundland and Labrador schools. Administrators are not satisfied with the current procedure and criteria used to select principals, and the opportunities for their professional development. Moreover, there is considerable dissatisfaction with the present procedures utilized in the evaluation of principals. As well, principals and assistant principals disagree with the present bonus structure associated with their roles, and they also have expressed a strong desire to have their teaching duties greatly reduced. These findings again suggest an urgent need to examine these existing administrative positions with a view to modifying current practices associated therewith.

Both principals and assistant principals are interested in upgrading their qualifications through advanced training seminars. It can therefore be concluded that these role incumbents would be interested in entering into an agreement with Memorial University to establish a permanent leadership training centre to enhance their administrative roles.

In general, department heads are anxious to see their role enlarged to include greater involvement in school administration. They also express the need for clearly stated, uniform guidelines throughout the Province for this role. As well, it must be realized that if department heads are to assume more meaningful administrative roles, time must be provided from their heavy teaching assignments. For instance, liaison with feeder schools is necessary but available time prevents the carrying out of this role responsibility in an effective manner.

More professional development opportunities are required to explore this administrative role through the provision of workshops and short courses. It was suggested that a Special Interest Council of Department Heads be formed to facilitate leadership seminars design to assist role occupants in the fulfilment of their responsibilities. This suggests the possibility of Memorial University establishing advanced training experiences for these role incumbents. Principals and other district administrators must also be encouraged to display greater acceptance of this role in educational decision making. In particular, opportunities for increased instructional leadership activities must be devised -- in essence, creating a higher priority for this position in local school management. Given the coordinative duties assigned to department heads, along with the legal responsibilities attached thereto, there is a strong desire on the part of these individuals to see positive changes in their leadership role, including the bonus structure and assigned teaching time. The concept of having department heads serve as "head teachers" in small schools, receiving a "head teacher" bonus as adequate remuneration for such service, is well worth further exploration. As well, the researchers contend that the "coordinating principal" role needs to be reconsidered relative to an expanded department head administrative function.

The potential for increased department head contributions to school-based administration in the Province seems unlimited. There is little doubt that department heads desire a more meaningful role in planning, organizing and administering the over-all operation of schools to make them more efficient and effective. Further, department heads have become very well qualified and clearly demonstrate the ability to become instructional leaders. It can be concluded that opportunities must be found to maximize their potential in the interest of over-all school improvement.

In general, it can be concluded that school administrators' views of needed changes within a restructured educational system are primarily associated with a deep interest in improving the effectiveness of that system in general and their roles in local school management in particular. Therefore, the efforts of system planners must focus on initiating changes associated with process, role, school and district within the denominational education framework.

## Recommendations for Change

Concern 7: Based upon an analysis of the data, review of the literature, examination of school-based administration trends on the national and international scenes and the researchers' own perceptions, what recommendations can be offered for improvement?

The following recommendations for system change to accommodate the roles and expectations associated with school-based administration are premised on two major assumptions:

- A willingness of this Royal Commission to propose radical structural changes in the Newfoundland denominational education system.

- The assignment of discretionary powers to the local school, creating a realistic environment for school-based administration.

### Recommendation 1

Immediate action should be initiated to reduce the amount of time principals and assistant principals currently spend on school maintenance activities.

### Recommendation 2

Administrative roles must be redefined to focus on instructional leadership responsibilities by principals, assistant principals and department heads. This necessitates extensive redesigning of the current administrative structure of local school management to allow for a team approach to educational administration.

**Recommendation 3**

The teaching assignment responsibilities borne by assistant principals should be reduced to allow this role to effectively complement the principalship in school management. The assistant principalship role should also be redesigned to allow greater involvement in meaningful administrative activities such as instructional leadership.

**Recommendation 4**

A time management study should be undertaken to explore means by which the role of school-based administrators can be more effectively deployed.

**Recommendation 5**

Immediate steps should be taken to examine the department head role in school administration with a view to allowing these individuals to function as part of a team approach to school management. Moreover, the teaching assignments currently borne by department heads should be reduced to allow them to participate meaningfully in all administrative task areas.

**Recommendation 6**

Provincial role descriptions for department heads should be enacted to prevent/minimize principal definition and/or interpretation of that role.

**Recommendation 7**

Department heads must be allowed to participate in a meaningful way in the following task areas of school management -- personnel services, instructional leadership, school-community relations and management of professional activities. This will necessitate elimination of unilateral management in favour of more cooperative endeavour.

**Recommendation 8**

An immediate attempt should be made to place department heads (or equivalent roles) in all junior and senior high schools to function as part of an administrative team approach to local school management, and to provide curriculum/liaison with elementary feeder schools.

**Recommendation 9**

The provision of adequate support services must be undertaken to minimize the amount of time spent by administrators in general school management tasks. This implies provision of strong support services in the form of clerical and secretarial assistance, computers and other technological aids to all schools so that local school administrators can be more effective in managing the delivery of educational programmes.

**Recommendation 10**

Principal and assistant principal interest in realizing greater involvement in the personnel service task area should be facilitated through role refinement. Additionally, adequate time must be given to administrators to allow them an opportunity to fulfil their school-community relations responsibilities.

**Recommendation 11**

Re-assignment of a number of duties performed by principals to assistant principals necessitates the placement of assistant principals or head teachers in all schools, regardless of school size. This will mean a re-examination of the formula for placement of assistant principals.

**Recommendation 12**

Immediate attention must be focused on redesigning the roles of principals, assistant principals and department heads to increase their satisfaction therewith as a first step in achieving effective delivery of educational services at the local school level.

**Recommendation 13**

Given that administrators view fund raising activities as constituting a major infringement on their administrative time, such activities should cease to be part of local school administrative responsibility. Various levels of government should find alternative sources for financial revenue.

**Recommendation 14**

A collegial form of school-based administration should be developed immediately to facilitate local school management as follows -- minimize the stress associated with demands for role accountability, and assist in fulfilling meaningful instructional leadership roles.

**Recommendation 15**

Avenues must be explored for provision of professional development activities/experiences for all school-based administrators -- principals, assistant principals and department heads. A Centre for Educational Leadership should be established by the Faculty of Education at Memorial University, and operate in concert with the other major educational constituencies in the Province. Such a Centre could offer on-going professional development training opportunities such as seminars and short-courses for practising and aspiring administrators.

**Recommendation 16**

The Educational Administration Programme Group of the Faculty of Education at Memorial University should assume primary responsibility for activities of such a Centre.

**Recommendation 17**

The development and delivery of graduate programmes be reviewed to ensure they reflect current state-of-the-art trends in educational administration.

**Recommendation 18**

Current practices for the recruitment, selection and evaluation of principals should be changed in order to increase role effectiveness. The concept of introducing a mandatory course for aspiring school-based administrators, as required in Ontario, should be pursued.

**Recommendation 19**

The current administrative bonus structure should be reviewed immediately, with the goal of achieving greater role incumbent satisfaction. This bonus structure should include components in addition to the monetary element.

**Recommendation 20**

The possibility of having department heads serve as head teachers in small schools should be explored.

**Recommendation 21**

The concept of coordinating principals should be investigated in light of expanded assistant principal and department head roles in school management.

**Recommendation 22**

Whereas the concept of mandatory transfer for principals and assistant principals might not be feasible at this time, the concept should be introduced for further discussion and implementation as early as possible.

**Recommendation 23**

The Faculty of Education at Memorial University be urged to develop a Doctoral programme in education.

**Recommendation 24**

The concept of peer coaching be explored as one mechanism for inducting administrative aspirants in addition to providing retraining opportunities for experienced administrators.

**Recommendation 25**

The appointment to schools of administrative personnel with backgrounds other than in education not be considered. However, it is recommended that a stronger emphasis be placed on business management courses in the educational administration programme at Memorial University.

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Chapter 18

# CURRICULUM

Clar Doyle
Dennis Mulcahy

## Introduction

The Commission is charged specifically with examining current organizational and administrative structures for delivering school related programs and services at the provincial, district and school level. In particular this paper will explore present and potential administrative structures through which curriculum is developed and implemented. In the final analysis this paper will suggest for consideration, a model of curriculum development and implementation. This model will be accompanied with suggestions concerning the larger educational system.

In order to begin on a secure footing it is necessary to closely examine the present practices with regard to curriculum development and implementation in Newfoundland and Labrador. This is done by a careful examination of provincial educational documents, Royal commission briefs, and in-depth interviews with various stakeholders. These interviews are with teachers, principals, program coordinators, curriculum consultants, and the curriculum director. This process is followed by a wide literature research on curriculum development and implementation and by examining existing curriculum models from other jurisdictions.

Extensive references are given from such documents, briefs, interviews, literature and existing models as an underpinning for our recommendations on curriculum development and implementation.

## Curricular Claims, Concerns and Issues

In this section of the paper we wish to give voice to the many, and often contradictory, views about schooling and curriculum in this province. We quote extensively from the briefs, interviews, and related literature. These voices and views will be used to help articulate an emergent conceptualization of curriculum. and to point to a potential model of development and implementation..

### Mission of Schools

There is a growing intellectual consensus about what schools should be doing to help educate students. This emerging consensus calls for the acquisition of content which constitutes the basis for further learning along with process skills which include analyzing, synthesizing, inferring, and evaluating (Manitoba Education and Training 1990).. Add to these are literacy and numeracy skills and their application, critical thinking and problem solving ability along with personal and social responsibility. Further to this we often find emphasis on communication skills and the ability to locate, retrieve, and synthesize information (David, 1991). Following on this is the agreement that teaching as telling and learning as recall will not achieve these goals. There is a call from the literature and stakeholders that we need to seek individual and team learning opportunities that engage students, provide challenging tasks, allow choice and multiple answers in a setting that allows flexible grouping and class scheduling.

One of the overriding goals in restructuring education is to raise significantly the performance of all students. There is a genuine call for excellence. However teachers are caught in a type of time-warp. They are being asked to teach students to think critically while they are being judged by standardized tests that emphasize isolated facts, rote learning, and content. As Theodore Sizer claims "we have to teach differently; we have to rethink testing, the shape of the curriculum, the schedule; we have to demand more of our students"(1991, p.33,). All this is being asked for at a time when schools are expected to solve a myriad of social problems. Some of these problems simply did not exist generations ago or they were considered by most Newfoundlanders to be the responsibility of the family, the church, or some other social institution. We have to realize that calls for school change, as expressed in the many briefs, must be seen and realized within the "deep structure" of Newfoundland society at large (Tye, 1991, p. 36,). Combined with this reality we must remember the array of roles that students will be expected to play in society. As *Curriculum in the Schools of British Columbia* (1988) claims:

> We should be helping students prepare to assume their place as full participants in the democratic institutions of our society, as contributors to the level of social morality of our society, as economically productive citizens, and as caring and nurturing family members. The more students see the relationships among the things that they are learning, and between those things and their everyday lives, the more meaningful the curriculum will be to them (1988, p.32).

This notion is echoed in briefs presented to this Royal Commission on Education.

> "We have to be more flexible in providing our students with relevant programs that are connected with their individual career aspirations, whether that be to obtain employment, apprenticeship training, and/or post secondary institutions" (Brief #670, p.14).

Further to this there is a call for school programs to reflect the needs of society in relation to employment trends and employment opportunities.(Brief # 390). As one Parents' group wrote; "our children must be taught to read with comprehension, write with clarity, and to compute with accuracy" (Brief # 661, p. 1). This has to be attempted in an age of changing technologies and societal demands on the curriculum, the content and process of learning are changing faster than ever before (Brief #671). All this puts places serious demands on the whole process of curriculum development and implementation.

If we are to attempt to address these serious demands we have to ask ourselves the following questions:

*What do we want students to know and be able to do?*

*What kind of learning experiences should schools offer to produce these outcomes?*

*What will it take to transform schools into places where such experiences can be offered?*

*Who is responsible for ensuring that the desired results are achieved?*

Jane David (1991) reminds us that if we are to transform our schools there must be a sincere invitation to change, authority and flexibility, access to knowledge, and time to plan. It is becoming obvious that educational reforms that try to change one piece at a time have less chance of success than restructuring attempts that tackle all pieces. The many and powerful briefs presented to the Royal Commission, and recent curriculum writers, seem to be demanding that "all pieces" be tackled if students are to be offered the most promising schooling. In a school, everything important touches everything else of importance. If we change one consequential aspect of school then all others are affected. Sizer (1991) reminds us that "this natural synergy" is especially true when most educational budgets are tight. If we try to improve our curriculum by adding something new then something else might have to be dropped. If one program is emphasized it means another program is de-emphasized. Reform-by-addition is no longer an option in an over crowded curriculum.

> Within that length of time [ten years], we have had programs changed in every grade from grades one to twelve. Ten years is not a long time. In every grade. as a matter of fact, we've had so much emphasis on program changes that lots of times we've hardly had time to catch our breath" ( Interview # 4, p. 12).

Intended and Realized Curriculum.

We know from similar studies, curricular literature, interviews, submitted briefs and our long-term school experience that there is a considerable difference between the intended and the realized curriculum in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. In many ways the conceptual level of published provincial curriculum documents is excellent and matches the best thinking found in the wider literature. (*Learning to Learn*, and *Charting a Vision: A Quest for excellence* are but two documents that reflect such thinking.) Part of the challenge for this study is to examine the gaps that exist between the intended and the actual curriculum along with realizing the significance of such discrepancies. Some of these discrepancies are best expressed in the mixed messages sent to teachers. One of the strongest mixed messages comes from trying to balance the resource based learning message with the new Primary Art Program; "Every child got a textbook. Twenty six dollars for a text book" (Interview #9, p.18).

Some of the briefs suggest that the Department of Education should take a serious look at the way it has been supporting various ideas it has undertaken. The concern expressed is that many such "unit ideas" end up being shelved because not enough support has been given to proper implementation and evaluation at district and school level (Brief # 213). There is a further claim that much of what the department of education does in the areas of curriculum and instruction is being duplicated at the district level by assistant superintendents and program coordinators (Brief # 390). Others are even stronger in their comments on the gap between the intended curriculum and the realized curriculum. It is claimed that the province's system of selecting programs, supplying materials, and in-servicing the new programs has contributed to educational inequality.(Brief # 595). The same brief goes on to claim that

> Many new programs are never effectively implemented at the classroom level. Teachers are not given enough inservice and follow-up support to provide them with the knowledge and confidence to teach the programs with fidelity. Changing teaching methods is a very complex undertaking and the persons expected to change must be involved in a long-term process" (p.10)
>
> Research indicates that change in teachers' curriculum beliefs and philosophies cannot be imposed from above or effectively brought about from a distance. What is required then is planned, on-site, in-area interrelationships which facilitate the development of teachers' ownership of curriculum as well as their internalizing of concepts and practical application in classrooms. Curriculum change, therefore, has to be implemented at the school level by teachers with 'local' facilitators" (Brief #671, p.19).

There is widespread concern that curriculum development and implementation, particularly at the primary level, is impeded, hampered, and constrained by the dominance of a subject centered and content oriented, mindset. "The majority of the people who are involved at the decision making level have that high school background. There are very few of our voices out there to hear what we are trying to do" (Interview #9, p.6). Similar concerns are expressed about curriculum continuity and coherence which manifest themselves as significant gaps in expectations and orientations between kindergarten and grades one, between grades three and four, between grades six and seven, and between junior high and high school. "The department does not appear to have an effective coordinating committee to determine what constitutes a proper curriculum for each grade level. The overcrowded elementary curriculum forces teachers to behave, or at least feel, as if they are teaching in a mini high school. Clearly it is time to examine the primary and elementary curriculum to define appropriate objectives and priorities for these students"(Brief #595, p.8).

There would seem to be notable exceptions in the way curriculum is developed and implemented.in this province. Two of the people interviewed felt that when there is real cooperation between program developers and program implementors it is possible to get a much better match between curriculum intention and realization (Interviews # 1 and # 4). It would seem from such examples that when real time is spent bringing program coordinators and teachers into the Analysis and Design aspects of the curriculum then there is much greater possibility that the Implementation stage will be treated as a process rather than as a product and that Evaluation will be much more beneficial (Wiles and Bondi,1989).

## Locus of Change

During the past decade in this province thinking about curriculum has reflected the shift in the major positions or meta-orientations. At least at the conceptual level the move is away from the transmission view of curriculum to a transactional perspective. This drift towards transactional programming can be attributed to real concerns about the transmission position with its link to rote learning methods, the mastery of school subjects, the compliance with traditional teaching methodologies, and the mechanistic view of human behaviour (Brief # 590).

> Up to ten years ago, our orientation was no doubt one of transmission. In my opinion, presently our orientation at the curriculum development level is more one of transaction, as defined above [see Miller and Seller, 198?]. However, at the curriculum delivery end, that is, in the classrooms of the schools throughout the province, there exists quite a range of behaviors on the transmission/transaction continuum. There still remain teachers who know (or at least practice) only the lecture method, and use only the one single student resource, the text. In fact, for some teachers the text is the program! (Oakley, 1988, p.3)

While there is evidence that many teachers are breaking this mode of teaching much work needs to be done. There is little doubt that there are classrooms where the transactional position focuses on problem solving strategies and where education is viewed as a dialogue between the student and the curriculum in which the student reconstructs knowledge. The key to genuine educational improvement and restructuring seems to rest with the school. This is easier claimed than delivered. Research on educational change shows that schools if they are to improve must somehow be connected to new knowledge from the outside and that conditions within the school must allow teachers to share this new knowledge among themselves (Tye and Tye 1984). The reality for many teachers is that, despite the best efforts of curriculum developers and program coordinators, the "new knowledge" may be impenetrable. Part of the problem is that there is an overwhelming demand made of teachers to work in their classrooms teaching their particular subject or grade in isolation from others.

> We often said balkanization is what you are faced with in high school that maybe there needs to be time for more links between high school, and junior high, and between junior high and elementary...maybe there is a need for us to get together sometimes to get some feedback and find out what the positive and negative things are with curriculum at the different levels (Interview # 2, p. 2).

Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) remind us that we should not treat schools as the "unit of change" but rather we should see them as the "center of change". This latter notion helps us to realize that the very purpose of other roles and structures, in the educational system, is to support the activities of schools. There is increasing evidence that the most effective schools are the ones that exhibit close ongoing interaction with board staff (Fullan, 1991). This notion is brought out clearly in briefs, interviews and the literature on curriculum.

> The major function of central office staff is the improvement of students' learning experiences by collaboratively working with teachers within and outside their classrooms to ensure and assist in the implementation of the curriculum. While teachers are the key

> implementation agents, program coordinators and assistant superintendents are the support personnel who nurture and help teachers as they change their beliefs and philosophies of education (Brief # 659, p. 16).

Time has to be allowed for teachers to meet with each other and explore the philosophies, beliefs, and values which underpin any educational program.

> I don't think there is any substitute for ensuring that people have time to meet each other within schools at grade levels, within committees at district level, with out of district people who have some particular expertise...to give them as many opportunities as they can to see what others are saying...and to work through their own experiences...(Interview #4, p. 5).

Real change in the classroom is more likely to happen when it is facilitated rather than dictated. Teachers are professionals who must make decisions about content, materials and methodologies for their students. (*Curriculum in the Schools of British Columbia*, 1988) However in this province many teachers feel that their professional expertize is not respected and that they are seen as merely "technicians".(See Interviews #7, #11) We have noted above that the deep structure of schooling is inseparable from society's most fundamental assumptions about schools. This notion has to be tempered with the realization that each school has its own unique personality. In this sense no two schools are exactly alike. Each school is shaped by its own history, by the community of which it is a part, and by its internal culture. We have to understand this notion as it applies to Newfoundland schools. If this notion is accepted then the school should be seen as the center of change. Putting the locus of change anywhere else seems to invite failure.

The typical effort at curriculum change is an initiative in one subject, with the intention of enhancing teacher decision making during implementation. As we know from the literature the results of such efforts are discouraging. These disappointments come from inadequate staff development and failure to develop shared understandings or organize teachers for extended cohesive action (Fullan 1990, Joyce 1991).

### Conditions for Change

If the seat of any real curriculum change must be at the school level what conditions are necessary to facilitate such change? It is important to realize that individual teachers, administrators, board staff, as well as department personnel are devoting considerable energy and time to creating new roles, yet they must maintain their old roles and responsibilities in order to function in a system that has not changed. The reality seems to be that many well meaning people are stuck in, what Theodore Sizer calls "deeply traditional, but flawed ideas about learning and teaching" (1991, p. 34). Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) issue a challenge to educators for the new century. The challenge is that teachers and their leaders develop what they call interactive professionalism. With such an approach teachers as a group would be allowed greater powers of discretion in making decisions with and on behalf of the children they know best. Teachers would be encouraged to make these decisions with their colleagues in collaborative cultures of help and support. Teachers would share resources and ideas and critically reflect on the purpose and value of what they teach. Within this challenge teachers would be committed to continuous school improvement and would be more fundamentally accountable through dialogue, action and assessment of their own work. Many of the briefs reinforce this notion when they claim that teachers should have major inputs into formulating decisions regarding appropriate curricula for each grade level (Brief # 595).

> Solutions may mandate a new model for the province in terms of curriculum development and implementation functions. For example, the current system of departmentalized

> curriculum decision makers and specialist who inservice school district subject coordinators, who in turn inservice teachers may be cumbersome, inefficient and ineffective. Such a model ignores much of the recent curricular reform and staff development efforts which place emphasis upon the school building level and the contribution of school administrators (p. 10).

Many teachers are willing to work with a model that puts them at the center. The claim is if they have the basic concepts then they will use whatever is needed to teach the students best (Interview #6). In fact some teachers are happiest, and feel most professional, when they are free to teach in a manner which allows them to decide on the resources and teaching methods best suited to the particular students and specific objective (Interview # 3). Interdisciplinary planning and teaching, the development of critical thinking abilities, the use of the wider community as a learning resource, and the intrinsic motivation of student learning still remain elusive in many schools. Educators have to see the value of such schooling. It would seem that society is calling for significant and long-lasting change. The changes called for in many of the briefs presented to the Royal Commission are articulating, albeit in different voices, the need for restructuring our schools. Part of the vexing question is to examine who is calling for what change. It must further be seen that many of these calls, for fundamental change, are coming from people who could well have a vested interest in keeping things as they are. Instead they are calling for greater decision-making power to be given to teachers and school administrators (Briefs #601, #659, #670, #671) School-based change has strong support in the educational literature yet the tension between centralized and decentralized decision making seems perennial. The evidence from research and practice indicates that decentralization has great potential for making schools more positive and productive places for both students and teachers. The deep structure of our educational system, however, favours centralization (Barbara Tye 1991).

> All schools should have a basic core program in academics; and cultural, physical and social programs such as music,sports, drama, student government,creative writing or other such areas. Provincial standards which make sure materials and knowledge are taught and learned are necessary (Brief #463, P. 3).
>
> The school is a mini-society and is a crucial context for the Christian socialization of the student. The Christian school,then, must respond to public definitions of accountability (Brief # 559, p. 19).)

Part of the challenge in any deep restructuring of education, specifically as it applies to curriculum development and implementation, is to strike some workable balance between the deep structure of schooling and the best thinking about schooling. As we have claimed above the school,is the optimal center for educational change efforts. While the facilitating behaviours of superordinate agencies (province and district) and individual classroom teachers are important, what is most critical is to get concerted action at the local school site. Lasting school improvement will come through the facilitation of teacher and school action. The mandating of new programs from superordinate levels, in reality, often impedes school improvement (Kenneth Tye, 1991).

## An Emergent Conceptualization of Curriculum

We do not need research literature to tell us that as humans we learn best when we are engaged in our study, and when the object of our study attracts and holds our attention.

> Today, most of the teachers, rather than the students, "do the work". We present material and expect merely that the students will display back to us that to which they have been exposed...the kids forget much of what they learned. they were not engaged. They did not have to invent on their own. They saw little meaning in their work. We

> must change the curriculum from a display-of-content to questions-that-ultimately-provoke-content. Press the kids to do the work, to solve the problems presented. The cost? It takes longer to provoke kids to learn for themselves than it does to deliver content to them (Sizer 1991, P. 33).

Much of school life for students is marked by rapid-fire class changes, unrelated content, varied teaching styles and methodologies, and uneven evaluations. We need to aim at intellectual coherence for students. We have to ask what are the most important curricular matters to put before our students. We have to find the most provocative means to get their attention and engage their minds. We must seek ways of linking, sequencing, and reinforcing disciplines. In short we need to return to a more interdisciplinary curriculum. As the position paper *Curriculum in the Schools of British Columbia* (1988) stated it is time to develop programs that are integrated and interdisciplinary. These programs should emphasize thinking, reasoning, creativity, and recreation. With this in mind the authors of the above paper proposed a curriculum made up of subjects sub-divided into three categories; Humanities and Fine Arts, Sciences, and Practical Arts. This paper reminds us that factual content, which so quickly becomes obsolete, should be subordinate to the notion of "learning how to learn". *Learning to Learn* (1991) is an excellent example of how this concept can be placed in a realizable form for this province. It is through the interaction of diverse students, with appropriate resources, and flexible teachers that the best intentions of curriculum are realized. ( See Briefs #563, #590, #597, #670, #671 for support)

*Answering the Challenge* (1990), Manitoba's document on high schools, suggests that any new curriculum guides should incorporate the concept of integration of knowledge across subject areas. They further suggest that all curriculum guides include main subject area concepts, relationship to other subject matter with appropriate integrative teaching strategies. Manitoba's suggestion of offering general, specialized, and advanced courses is also helpful.

We feel, at this juncture, it is necessary to establish a conceptualization of curriculum which can be used as a point of departure for future curricular thinking and doing in Newfoundland and Labrador. One of the problems that we have encountered in our inquiry is the fact that the term "curriculum" denotes and connotes a great variety of meanings to different people. Some would limit the term to refer simply to subjects or programs offered in a school; others would want all of the experiences, including the extra-curricular, a child might have under the guidance of the school. This range of definitions exists not only among educators and the general public in this province but is reflected elsewhere as well. (Taba 1962; Tanner and Tanner 1975; Giroux and Penna 1979, Miller and Sellar 1987; Wiles and Bondi 1989) Such a variety of meanings make communication problematic. We often find ourselves in the middle of conversations, with educators and various other stakeholders, and suddenly realize that we are not really talking about the same thing at all. Dialogue is difficult between individuals and among persons who lack a common language and shared terms of reference. The implications and consequences of this absence of explicit consensus in terms of meaning, for curriculum development, implementation and evaluation are far reaching. This lack of shared understanding may go a long way in accounting for many of the problems that continue to plaque our system of education. We cannot begin the process of restructuring until we can come to some agreement as to the nature of the entity we are trying to improve. Is there a way of conceptualizing curriculum that would be meaningful for all stakeholders in this province, and at the same time be inclusive of their expressed concerns and issues? The starting point of our search was a detailed analysis of the concerns and issues that have been expressed in the briefs submitted to the commission and in the various interviews we conducted. What is both revealing and encouraging about this analysis is the fact that people have indicated that curriculum thinking and planning (analysis and design) has to be concerned with more than a list of subjects, topics or content. Students, teachers, learning resources, milieu, subject matter, class size, integration, orientation, beliefs, values, attitudes; continuity, processes, strategies, geography, organization, and structure, are all part of the meaning that is embedded in "curriculum". The message from briefs and interviews, and supported by the research literature, is that thinking about curriculum has to be responsive to this very complex, problematic, interactive, dynamic set of elements and components. Each of these elements and components is affecting and being affected by all others in a constant state of change and tension.

Given such a realization, the view of curriculum as a set of courses or a program of studies must give way to a much more informed and sophisticated conceptualization. Any emergent view of curriculum that is developed and adopted in this province should satisfy the following criteria: first, such a view should be dialectic so as to be inclusive of the multiplicity of understandings expressed; second, it is a view grounded in the centrality and importance of the teacher's role in the curriculum development process; third, it is responsive to, and inclusive of, the variety of issues raised in the briefs and interviews; and fourthly, it focuses our attention on what happens and is experienced in the classroom as the key locus for change.

The point of departure for this emergent view of curriculum should be what actually is experienced in the classroom situation; the events, activities, and interactions. Curriculum documents, teacher guidelines,and text-books are not the curriculum: these are only the bones that must be fleshed out through student and teacher decisions, interactions. and activities. Such documents, guides, and texts are no more curriculum than a drama script is a play. Such a script is not a play until it is experienced by the participants.

The key persons in the classroom are the students and the teacher. All other persons involved in education, whether school administrators, or individuals working at the board or department level, must perceive their roles in terms of helping and assisting these key persons learn and teach. It is their needs that must be met and served by district and provincial personal.

Several important issues regarding these key persons have emerged from our inquires. Perhaps the most important of these is the diversity of the student population. The children of our province come from a great variety of cultural, geographic, economic and family backgrounds. The kinds of pre-school experience and continuing support and encouragement will vary considerably from child to child through his/her school career. As one person indicated some children come to school with 5,000 stories; for others their first encounter with a book will be in school.(Interview #9) In addition to this we are only beginning to acknowledge the degree of child sexual, physical, and psychological abuse and physical neglect that exists in this province. Coping with the special needs of these children as well as helping them learn and develop academically requires considerable skill and resources. Finally, the abilities, interests and learning styles in any given classroom will again vary enormously. Acknowledging and accepting this diversity has two important implications and consequences for curriculum planning. Firstly, meeting the needs of such a diverse student population has to be seen as a daunting challenge. Trying to pre-scribe provincially the kinds of learning experiences suitable for each child is impossible. As one other person remarked: "How can we possibly have the same detailed curriculum for Davis Inlet and St. John's; they are two different cultures"(Interview # 11)

The material culture of a classroom includes books, desks, lighting, audio visual equipment, chalk, a variety of learning resource materials and technologies. It might also include decorations, posters, maps, displays, sand boxes, manipulatives, costume boxes, or dress-up centres. The key issue here again is one of diversity. There is a great deal of concern expressed in the briefs and the interviews as to the great differences that exist from one learning context to another. Of particular concern is the discrepancies that often exist in resource allocation between the primary/elementary and the secondary schools. There is a distinct perception among primary people, expressed in a number of interviews, that more money is being spend in the resource area at the secondary level (See Interviews #7, #11 for support).

The third element in the pedagogical situation are the various processes that the students and teachers engage in to facilitate learning and development. Such processes include lecturing, experimenting, playing , listening, talking, dramatizing and reading among others. A concern that has been expressed in the research literature (Goodlad, 1987) and from the briefs (Brief#590) is the limited repertoire of instructional strategies and processes being used in classrooms. Traditional, transmissional modes of learning and teaching still dominate.

The elements that make up a curricular situation - persons, things and processes - are never static. They are in a constant state of dynamic tension and interaction. These interactions generate a great deal of feeling and emotion in the both students and teachers. It would seem the real significance for us here is that curriculum is beyond the print material received by teachers. Treating school experiences as if they could come out from some "curriculum factory" is to perpetuate the problem.

The existential nature of curriculum being articulated here is one that acknowledges that the full range of human feeling and emotion - joy, anger, satisfaction, frustration; sadness, despair, surprise, humiliation, hope, fear - is being experienced by participants daily. The research literature on narrative and curriculum (Connelly and Clandinin 1988) as well as our explorations with teachers in which they reflected on their own stories of classroom experiences, in a critical manner, confirm this interactive intensity that is part of curriculum. It is essential if we are to understand the dynamics of classroom life, as well as such issues as teacher "burn out", low morale, student apathy, and the drop out problem that our search for answers and solutions be informed by a sophisticated understanding of this aspect of all curricular situations.

Connelly and Clandinin (1988) make the point that "all situations are historical"(p.7). What is experienced in any present classroom situation is influenced in some way by what happened in that classroom five minutes ago, yesterday, or last week. To make the matter more complex the personal histories of each of the participants in the situation are also playing a role in influencing this present situation which of course immediately is transformed into the past for the next present situation. To understand or evaluate a given moment in curricular time may require some historical knowledge of the situation and the participants. Students and teachers have lives outside of the classroom and what has happened to them in the near and distant past is brought to the present curriculum situation. A class of thirty five persons has a lot of different histories to deal with. It isn't just persons and situations that have a history. Instructional processes and things must also be considered in this historical sense. Computer software and other instructional resources become outdated. An issue that has emerged from our inquiries is the wisdom of the Department of Education's policy of committing itself in such a long term manner ( eight to ten years) to programs and textbooks.(See Briefs#543, #597, #670) Knowledge is changing so rapidly an alternative approach seems to be needed.

Finally, one of the most interesting comments made to us during this inquiry indicated that a particular curriculum document "had a history" . And in order for us to understand the significant forward movement that this guide represented we needed to know the history of the people who put it together. Only then could we appreciate the significant forward movement it represented. (Interview #10). Do we not need to know the personal history of each student and teacher for the same reason? Just as the existential "here and now" of any classroom situation is influenced by the past so too each unit of curricular time affects and influences what is to happen next for the participants in a pedagogical context. Each event or interaction points toward or is pulled toward some future event or action. Each event or interaction experienced in the present has the potential then of being formative in some way for the students as well as the teacher. It follows that curriculum cannot be treated as if it only is a "script" from a district or provincial office.

A significant curricular issue that has emerged during our inquires relates directly to a notion of the future. That is the question of the participants being free to respond to the serendipitous, or chance occurrence, in the classroom. Too much or rigid prescription, especially in terms of centrally delineated content coverage, inhibits this kind of necessary curricular freedom. This notion is compounded when teachers take a prescribed text in a literal sense. To be able to go with the emergent interests and questions that spontaneously arise from the students without worrying about specific text or content coverage is a necessary condition of effective teaching.

One of the central elements of our emergent curricular conceptualization is the notion of direction or directionality. Directionality should provide classroom teachers with a rationale and sense of purpose to guide the kinds of decisions they have to make from one curricular moment to another. Directionality may find expression in very specifically stated objectives or in a set of broad goals and aims. Alternatively a sense of purpose may emerge from a curriculum rationale that is informed by an image of an educated person or a set of beliefs and values about the overall purpose and practice of education.

A particular concern expressed by educators in this province is a distinct feeling that there doesn't exist a well articulated shared sense of overall direction in regards to curriculum. (Brief#595) There is a lack of consensus among the various constituencies - school board, department, university, and parents - as to what we are trying to do, where we are attempting to go. Furthermore it is equally obvious that there is the same lack of consensus within each of these constituencies. This absence of consensus results in a lack of curricular continuity and coherence. There is a perception that changes and modifications are made at one level, or in one subject area, without any apparent consideration of how this change may impact on other elements of the curriculum. This in part accounts for the "mixed messages" being sent to teachers that often seem to be advocating contradictory philosophies of learning. This perceived lack of direction makes it almost impossible for teachers to do their job effectively at the classroom level. To hold them exclusively accountable, when the system is found not to be working as it could, is to ignore the collective responsibility that must be shared.(See Interviews #7,#9,#10)

Our purpose in presenting these considerations for formulating a conceptualization of curriculum, for this province, is to offer a point of departure for critically re-thinking the process of curriculum development and implementation in Newfoundland and Labrador. As indicated earlier its value for us is that it captures the complex real-life nature of curriculum. This means that the point of departure, for all curricular thinking and doing, must be particular classroom situations. What is most important are the learning activities, interactions, and events that are created and experienced by the key persons in that situation: students and teachers. It insists that curricular thinking and doing must be sensitive to, and appreciative of, the dynamic and intense interaction and interconnectedness of the various elements that make up all learning/teaching situations. This particular conceptualization of curriculum reminds us that learning situations have a past, and a future, and that they are first and foremost human encounters.

Our hope is that the ideas presented here will be used by the stakeholders from the various constituencies as heuristic tools as they engage in the necessary hermeneutic dialectic process to find workable solutions for improving education in Newfoundland and Labrador. Such solutions will never emerge from the kind of simplistic, primitive and limited conceptions and definitions of curriculum that have traditionally dominated educational thinking in this province.

## Recommendations

### Considerations for a Curriculum Development Model

If there is to be substantial change in the development and implementation of curriculum in this province people will need both a reason and opportunity to change what they are doing. An invitation to change is perhaps the most critical intervention educational leaders can offer teachers, principals and coordinators. If the right conditions are to exist for deep change the province and districts must provide not only an invitation to change, but also authority and flexibility, along with access to required knowledge, and the time to internalize innovative content and processes. Schools need both authority to make decisions and freedom from constraining regulations if they are to redesign their schools in ways that best suit their particular circumstances (Davis, 1991). Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) suggest that meaningful collaboration requires having substantial and ongoing things to collaborate about. For them this means that teachers and principals must be given control over curriculum and instruction. If curriculum is simply dumped [our use of the word delivered is very telling] on teachers they often simplify it, ignore it, misinterpret it, slow it down, or imagine they are already doing it.

There is wide agreement that externally devised content becomes constraining rather than enabling in so far as it creates dependency in teachers, overload on schools, and wastefulness of administrative energy. It seems logical to suggest that the responsibility for curriculum content and experiences should go back to the schools. This will not be a unilateral swing away from centralization. Curriculum restructuring is too complex for such a facile suggestion. If schools are to regain power over the content and experiences of curriculum then a facilitating superordinate system must be put in place. In practice this will mean some curriculum development and implementation shifts for provincial and district personnel.

Teachers will not be asked to develop curriculum from nothing. Given the present workload and time constraints of teachers this would undermine any possible curricula restructuring. The total development of curriculum will be a collaborative effort. There are many facets to total curriculum development. The best approach would suggest that educators, at various levels, work to their strengths: teachers would select content, resources, and methodologies for the classroom; principals will facilitate planning and instruction and be responsible for in-school curriculum continuity and coherence; coordinators will help teachers internalize curriculum goals and materialize program objectives; district administrators will establish district goals and specific guidelines in terms of program goals, along with evaluative and professional development criteria and programs; department personnel will establish provincial goals and broad guidelines in terms of program skills, concepts and attitudes, and provide province-wide evaluative criterion (See Briefs #213, #390, #590, #595, #601, #670, #671 for support). It should be noted that the above suggestions are built on present structures. Our concern is with the directionality and support system needed by teachers and students.

## Considerations for a Curriculum Implementation Model

The real and the perceived gap between the intended curriculum and the realized curriculum seems, in great part, due to the process of implementation. This notion is supported by the curriculum literature (Kenneth Tye 1991, Fullan and Hargreaves 1991), as well as submitted briefs ( Briefs #213, #390, 590).

Implementation requirements need to go far beyond the provision of information and materials for a new program, presented in a single session. Effective curriculum implementation requires that teachers understand the intent of any new program and that they receive constructive feedback during their attempts to integrate the new program into their classrooms. In other words curriculum implementation is a process. If teachers, along with their facilitators, were to spend extended time determining how best to implement a new program in their own circumstances, they would be more personally committed to full implementation. Teachers' implementation of curriculum takes time, planning, sharing, on-site coaching, conceptual clarification, materials, practice, professional development, and continued support.

## Considerations for a Curriculum Evaluation Model

Questions of curriculum evaluation, assessment, or monitoring bring uneasiness to most educators. Despite that, there is a real need for rigorous and continuous curriculum evaluation. Effective and efficient school programs must be developed and implemented. In this sense, evaluation is a critical stage for any curriculum process. (Wiles and Bondi 1989) We have to be demanding about excellence in teaching and learning. Student development is linked to teacher development and both are linked to curriculum development. In a real sense there cannot be genuine curriculum development without on-going evaluation. Curriculum, in relation to learning and teaching, can never be static. School systems must actively monitor and strengthen curriculum; the raw material of learning and teaching. The method of evaluation must also be a collaborative effort. The responsibility levels of evaluation must match the various responsibility levels for curriculum development. If schools are responsible for the selection of content, resources, and instructional methods, then it follows that the school should also be responsible for their evaluation. In such a model, program coordinators would take responsibility for evaluating the levels of teacher internalization of curriculum concepts while district administrators would evaluate the realization of specific program skills, concepts, and attitudes. Professional development programs, at the district/school levels are crucial in this collaborative model. Provincial personnel would evaluate the realization of provincial goals and broad program skills, concepts, and attitudes. It should be further noted that, under such a collaborative model, each stakeholder group would select the criterion and mechanism for both formative and summative curriculum evaluation.( See Briefs #590, #601, #659, #661, and #670 for support) In such a model it would seem essential to have development, implementation, and evaluation groups that worked across authority lines. Collaborative credibility will be crucial.

### Specific Recommendations

Recommendation 1. That the mandate of schools in Newfoundland and Labrador be clearly delineated.

Recommendation 2. That a comprehensive curriculum be developed to fulfil the mandate of schools.

Recommendation 3. That a collaborative model of curriculum development, implementation, and evaluation be initiated.

Recommendation 4. That the teacher be given responsibility for the selection of curriculum content, learning resources, and instructional methodologies to realize stated goals and objectives.

Recommendation 5. That the principal be aligned with teachers and be responsible for curriculum continuity and coherence within the school.

Recommendation 6. That program coordinators be responsible exclusively for facilitating curriculum goals, content, and process at school levels.

Recommendation 7. That School Boards be responsible for district goals and evaluative criteria along with local programs and professional development.

Recommendation 8. That the Department of Education be responsible for formulating the aims, developmental goals, and evaluative criteria for the province.

## Implications of Proposed Recommendations

Before there can be any authentic conceptualization of curriculum.there must be a clearly articulated mandate for schools in our province. Only then can there be a curriculum, collaboratively generated, that can hope to make a connection between intention and action. It is equally important for us to underscore the notion that the above recommendations cannot be viewed as some event. We are very much talking about a process; a process that is long-term, on-going and collaborative. This precludes any one body of educators being made responsible for restructuring the curriculum of this province. In the recommendations above we are attempting to place the notion of collaborative curriculum building on an authentic foundation. No foundation can be attempted unless there is a clear mandate for schooling. That premise precludes us from recommendations that dictate structures, strategies, objectives, content, resources, or methods.

As we have indicated above, support for change has to be built into the system. There is a general call for significant changes to curriculum development and implementation in the literature we have referred to, in the written briefs presented to the Royal Commission, and in the interviews we have conducted. Many significant stakeholders, often at their own expense, are demanding change and making particular suggestions for such change. These calls for change must be critically examined for their political weight.

There are many factors about schooling that we can not always change; we can change curriculum development and implementation. That facet of schooling we do have power over. In a certain measure we are asking people to look at schooling, and the demands of curriculum, in a slightly different light. In many ways we are suggesting that there be shifts of responsibility and power. In many instances we are claiming that old jobs should be done in different ways. In the final analysis the emphasis of this paper is on the school experiences of students and less on the structures that support these experiences. We take the position that every role, and every office, outside the classroom exists for the sole purpose of supporting that classroom. In terms of logic, if individual schools and classrooms closed there would be no function for the superordinate agencies. This is not to claim that superordinate agencies are not important. Rather the comment is meant to remind us of the real purpose of such agencies. Part of a rethinking in this regard would have to do with the often expressed claim that teachers "work for" principals, or that principals and program coordinators "work for" superintendents. This is a complex situation in our province where educational roles, status, and power are so closely intertwined. Unravelling this fabric will demand insight, generosity, and commitment. Without such insight, generosity, and commitment collaborative curricula development, implementation, and evaluation will not have a chance. The mandates of education must precede the dictates of power. In a restructured process we should be talking about levels of collaboration and facilitation; not levels of management and control. As quoted above, teachers, and others caught in the pyramid, are feeling disempowered, and in some cases disenfranchised.

A first and serious step towards empowerment is simply to give the curriculum content, resources, and instructional decisions back to teachers. We have to remember that there is a finite amount of time and energy. Before there is any provincial attempt to give teachers discretionary power over content, resources, and methodology, we are suggesting that there be a serious examination of the present overcrowded curriculum as well as other non-professional demands made on teachers.. If the above recommendations are seen as "simply more work for teachers", it will be difficult to build collaborative networks. Collaboration cannot be passed down. Given the curriculum conditioning, and "teacher-proof" packages that we have come to depend on means this new responsibility will not be easy for teachers and principals. The real questions of time, knowledge, and opportunity become paramount. If individual schools are to be the actual focus of our curriculum endeavours, then fresh models of development and implementation will have to be worked. If curriculum activity is to be on-site then our method of "in-service days" might need to be rethought. If we are to model a new direction in curriculum development and implementation we need to start thinking in realistic terms about cooperative learning, interdisciplinary curriculum designs, and the community as a learning resource. The quixotic dictum, "we have always done it this way" will no longer carry the day. We have to come to grips with our own formal training and realize that for our students discrete subjects, delivered in splendid isolation, do not lead to the best possible education.

Part of our coming agenda may force us to re-examine how we spend our educational dollars as well as our educational time. The rage expressed about the preponderance, selection, and commitment to text-books speaks to a need to widen the learning resources we offer our students and professional development time might need to be built into the school calendar.

There will have to be a greater emphasis on the principles of curriculum development, implementation, and evaluation from the point of view of education at the pre-service, in-service, and graduate levels. This too will need to be a collaborative effort between schools, school boards, department, and university. There is also an opportunity here for collaborative school-based research.

In conclusion we are hinting at a vision of curriculum development and implementation for the future. For many schools, and some districts, the reality of this vision could come easier and earlier than for others. It is our hope that the findings and the suggestions in this paper will help both the thinking and the doing of curriculum in Newfoundland and Labrador.

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## Chapter 19

# AN EXAMINATION OF CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Dennis Treslan

## I. DIRECTIVE

### Introduction

Organization of Canadian Education at the provincial level has characteristically resulted in the development of local school districts, administrative units defining specific geographic areas and populations over which local boards administer provincial education mandates. The matter of what constitutes an effective size for this intermediate unit of governance has become an issue in all parts of Canada over the last number of years as provincial governments have undertaken examinations of their school district boundaries. In most cases alterations to same have resulted as a means of maximizing educational efficiency and effectiveness in the face of powerful change forces. Nowhere has this desire to achieve effective and efficient school district operation been more evident than in Newfoundland, where educational services have traditionally been administered through a denominational framework to a geographically dispersed population.

Reorganization of Newfoundland school districts has been ongoing since the early 1960's when there existed some 300 small districts. Duplication of services implicit in this arrangement was addressed in the School's Act, 1969, which advocated consolidation of these non-viable units into 35 larger administrative districts. This dramatic consolidation of school districts has remained relatively unchanged to the present time. There are currently 29 denominational school districts comprising the whole of Newfoundland and Labrador -- 11 Roman Catholic, 16 Integrated, 1 Pentecostal Assemblies and 1 Seventh Day Adventist.

A number of environmental changes have occurred in Newfoundland since 1969, singularly and cumulatively impacting on the delivery of educational services. Continuous decentralization of education has resulted in school boards now having jurisdiction over a majority of school services. Declining enrolment has forced some districts to seek Ministerial approval to operate with fewer than 2,000 students. Improvement in transportation services has made it easier to cross certain geographical lines for bussing purposes, contributing much to the ease of district consolidation. Increasing costs have become obvious in such areas as transportation, insurance, building supplies and salaries -- forcing many school districts already strapped for cash to consider cutbacks in educational services as they struggle to remain viable in the face of ever increasing change forces. Add to this the closing of some schools and consolidation of others, population shifts within districts and alleged duplication and inefficiencies, and it becomes quite clear that the issue of exactly what constitutes a viable district must be closely examined. If the demands for more sophisticated curriculum experiences for students and more specialized services for teachers are to be realized in this current resource scarce milieu, the need to establish effective school districts becomes critical to the functioning of the denominational education system. The solution is not merely to alter existing district boundaries, but rather to determine what factors should be taken into consideration so that boundary adjustments will result in effective and efficient delivery of educational services.

## The Problem

The issue of school district size has received some attention across Canada in recent years as educational administrators struggle to maintain viable school districts in the face of mounting societal pressures. Although a "sense of community" continues to be uppermost on the minds of those contemplating alteration of district boundaries, other powerful change forces are also at work, some of which include urbanization, improved transportation, evolution of one-classroom rural school districts to large consolidated units, decreased student enrolment and financial cutback. What becomes clear is that if one is to achieve programme-effective and cost-effective educational systems in the face of these realities, due consideration must be placed on those factors deemed critical to the establishment of an effective school district size.

Theoretically, the size of a school district should derive from the rationale advanced for the existence of school districts generally. These include:

1. A collective of schools within a defined geographical area which enables school communities to interact with one another and with trustees and officials.
2. An administrative unit which can achieve economies of scale in both educational and operational terms without exceeding reasonable bounds of size or distance.
3. A socio-economic cross-section which facilitates equality of resources and opportunity somewhat comparable to society at large.
4. Sufficient size in terms of students and staff to accommodate mobility and maintain a viable level of educational and other professional services (Storey, Froese, Kratzmann, Peach, 1988, 24).

This rationale notwithstanding, there is currently considerable variation in both the geographic area and student enrolments constituting school districts operating in Newfoundland and Labrador. The smallest district (Seventh Day Adventist) has a student enrolment of only 301, yet covers the entire geographic area of Newfoundland and Labrador. Likewise, the Pentecostal Assembly district is comprised of the whole of the Province. The largest school district in Newfoundland (Roman Catholic) contains 19,441 students and is mainly comprised of the urban area of St. John's and surrounding environs. One other Roman Catholic district covers the entire area of Labrador, which is a greater geographic area than all of Newfoundland. A total of 27 districts of varying sizes and shapes exist between these size extremes, created for reasons of geography, religion and population. In themselves, the 11 Roman Catholic districts and 16 Integrated districts are the product of consolidated efforts begun nearly a quarter of a century ago.

Given this size diversity and the fact that there is growing concern about the effectiveness and cost-efficiency of this Province's school system, the major problem focused on in this paper is an examination of those factors deemed critical to the establishment of effect school districts. More specifically, the following questions are addressed:

1. What major conclusions and recommendations have been reached in recent school district boundary studies conducted in Newfoundland?
    a. What potential impact might these conclusions have on the Newfoundland denominational education system.
2. What is the rationale underlying the delivery of Health Care and Social Services in Newfoundland?
3. According to related literature and research, what factors/principles/characteristics are typically considered in determining school district size?
4. What factors should be considered as appropriate in the determination of effective school district boundaries for Newfoundland?

## Methodology

A number of procedures were adopted as means of generating information for this Paper. A computer library search was launched to identify factors/principles/characteristics typically considered in determining school district boundaries and to identify mechanisms to determine when dis-economies give way to economies of scale. Information was generated on the following dimensions of effective school districts: administration of local education; management of school district alteration, and various models of school district operation which might be used to achieve desired district effectiveness and efficiency.

Letters were forwarded to the Deputy Minister of Health and the Deputy Minister of Social Services in Newfoundland requesting information concerning a description of the current administrative structure used for the delivery of services, and the rationale in place to justify existing service districts.

Letters were forwarded to the Department of Education in every Canadian Province and all American States requesting the following information: demographics pertaining to existing school districts; the rationale for determining school district boundaries; any studies or evaluations completed in recent years, and any legislation, policies or guidelines applying directly to school district formation or consolidation.

Finally, a comprehensive analysis of the conclusions and recommendations arising from local boundary studies was undertaken.

Specifically, three such studies were examined, namely, The Task Force Report on Integrated School District Boundaries (herein referred to as Roebothan, 1987a), The Roman Catholic Educational Districts Boundary Report (herein referred as Treslan, 1988a) and The Pentecostal Educational District Boundary Report (herein referred to as Verge, 1989). In addition, the formal reaction reports of both the Catholic Education Council and the Pentecostal Education Council were also closely examined.

## The Canadian School District Mosaic

A survey of Canadian Provinces reveals considerable variation not only in the effort being made to alter school district boundaries, but also in the number and size of districts considered essential for the effective delivery of educational services. Most Canadian Provinces appear to monitor school district operation and in fact alter the size of these administrative units to effectively cope with environmental constraints, specifically dwindling enrolment and financial shortfall. Whereas Newfoundland adheres to the magic figure of 2,000 students as the limit below which Ministerial approval must be obtained for school district operation, the same does not hold true for the rest of Canada. However, information received from Provincial Departments of Education reveal some emphasis being placed on the need to examine the matter of district size and concomitant district boundaries. Table 1 provides selected demographic information concerning school district operating sizes in each Canadian Province.

The rationale for existing school district boundaries in British Columbia is derived from The Report of the Commission of Enquiry Into Educational Finance, completed in 1945. Only minor modifications, if any, to school district boundaries has occurred in the intervening years. Interestingly, the Royal Commission had recommended immediate consolidation of existing districts into 74 viable education units without local consultation, resulting in a situation which has remained relatively stable to the present time.

## TABLE 1 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION REGARDING CANADIAN SCHOOL DISTRICT OPERATING SIZE

| Province | Provincial Enrolment[1] | Educational Units | Unit Enrolment Variation <br> <1,000 | <br> 1,000-2,500 | <br> 2,501-9999 | <br> >10,000 | Minimum Unit Enrolment | Maximum Unit Enrolment | Average Unit Enrolment |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| British Columbia | 512,926 | 75 | 9 | 20 | 31 | 15 | 400 | 52,597 | 6,839 |
| Alberta | 437,273 | 149[2] | 74 | 38 | 32 | 5 | 16 | 84,028 | 2,934 |
| Sask. | 196,555 | 112 | 47 | 53 | 9 | 3 | 11 | 24,558 | 1,754 |
| Manitoba | 191,231 | 47 | 3 | 26 | 15 | 3 | 780 | 34,837 | 4,068 |
| Ontario | 1,902,141 | 173 | 53 | 21 | 39 | 60 | 5[3] | 102,390 | 10,995 |
| Quebec | 1,033,902 | 196 | 16 | 54 | 105 | 21 | 6 | 90,566 | 5,275 |
| New Brunswick | 136,287 | 42 | 9 | 13 | 17 | 3 | 151 | 15,586 | 3,245 |
| Nova Scotia | 166,263 | 21 | 0 | 3 | 11 | 7 | 2,133 | 29,764 | 7,917 |
| Prince Edward Island | 24,744 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 491 | 10,867 | 4,948 |
| New-foundland | 130,109 | 29 | 1 | 8 | 18 | 2 | 301 | 19,441 | 4,485 |
| North West Territories | 13,821 | 12 | 7 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 451 | 3,266 | 1,152 |

Notes:

1 Provincial enrolments are based on 1988-89 and 1989-90 statistics
2 Alberta educational units are comprised of school divisions, counties, public school districts, Roman Catholic Separate school districts, Protestant Separate school districts, Regional school districts, Consolidated school districts and Roman Catholic Public school districts
3 Excludes hospital schools

Close attention has been paid to the factors/forces affecting existing educational jurisdiction boundaries in Alberta in recent years. These include changing demographic matters, programme delivery as it relates to availability of educational opportunities or services, the economic situation, variations in mill rates, variations in wealth as it relates to assessment per pupil, local versus centralized control, and fragmentation and amalgamation. One further factor has necessitated this Province to monitor school jurisdiction boundaries -- the right of a religious minority (either Protestant or Roman Catholic) to form a separate school district as a statutory right in Alberta. The formation of these separate school districts is significant for the formation affects all tax payers in the district who are of the same faith as those who form the separate school district. Moreover, separate school district electors through their school board in the newly-formed separate district are responsible for the cost of the provision or purchase of an instructional programme, special education programme and transportation to and from school for their resident students. Provincial reviews of educational boundaries have been initiated by Government to examine the viability of existing school jurisdictions from time to time. A Co-terminous Boundary Commission was established in 1953-54 to examine and rationalize municipal and school boundaries. The Municipal and School Boundaries Advisory Committee was set up in 1973-74 to examine and resolve specific boundary related issues or problems. In October 1986 a proposal for a further Provincial educational boundary review was put forward by Alberta Education.

Existing school division boundaries have remained largely unchanged in Saskatchewan for the past 40 years despite major environmental developments: a drastic decrease in the number of operating schools (3,400 in 1944 to approximately 900 in 1990); the phasing out of some grades in many schools; the demise of many rural communities, along with improving transportation methods and changing transportation patterns. A few studies have been completed at the request of individual school divisions, but these have dealt more with the question of the boundaries of sub-divisions within the division rather than the external boundaries of the division as a whole. The need for a major province-wide boundary review is considered pressing! The boundaries of many rural school divisions have become unstable and this instability has manifested itself during general provincial elections. As a result of declining and shifting enrolments, some school divisions no longer represent efficient economic and administrative units. Although the need for a comprehensive review of boundaries is supported by all major educational agencies, the issue is politically sensitive because of such factors as local autonomy, historical developments and inter-community rivalries.

Boundaries defining school jurisdictions in Manitoba have remained virtually unchanged since the implementation of recommendations made in the 1959 Report of the School Division Boundaries Commission. Since then, several boundary reviews have been undertaken (1967; 1973), but despite the arguments for jurisdictional changes, little or no alterations have actually occurred. Social, economic, political and technological forces continue to challenge current divisional boundaries.

The most radical change in Ontario school district organization in relatively recent times occurred in the 1969 consolidation which basically made school board boundaries co-terminous with county/district boundaries. The rationale was that larger school jurisdictions would be more viable entities and would thus be better able to provide a full range of educational opportunities over the geographic area served. Work is currently underway to establish the framework for creation of French-language school boards in the Province.

Major reorganization of Quebec district boundaries occurred in 1982 when the French language issue (Bill 101) necessitated complete reform of the organizational structure of Quebec's school system. School districts were remapped, many school boards were integrated relative to primary and secondary education, and school boards essentially became divided along language lines rather than confessional lines.

There is no uniform criteria presently used to determine the number of students or the geographic area served by a particular school district. Among any two districts, variations surface regarding the interpretation of these factors. For the most part, any alteration to district boundaries is based more on local politics, and when modifications do occur close attention is paid to Municipal boundaries for alignment purposes.

The Province of New Brunswick has experienced a steady decline in pupil enrolment over the past decade. However, no information has been received to indicate that any substantial changes to school district boundaries have been undertaken in recent years.

All school district boundaries in Nova Scotia are based strictly on Municipal Boundaries, with one exception only. In this case the district boundary varies slightly from the geographical boundary of the municipality of the county of Cape Breton. There has not been an assessment of the present district structure since its implementation in 1982 as a result of suggestions contained in the Report of the Commission on Public Education Finance, dated March 31, 1981. Enabling legislation was passed in the early 1980's relating to school district formation. One recent report, the Doane Raymond Report on Educational Funding, was prepared late in 1989 and released in March 1990. Recommendations pertaining to district boundary changes have yet to be rejected or accepted by Cabinet. It is anticipated that Cabinet will probably make major decisions on funding by January 1991 and it is also expected that these decisions will impact directly on the viability of existing school districts.

The school district boundaries in the Province of Prince Edward Island have remained quite stable over the last number of years. A School System Review Commission (The Paquette Commission Report) was established in 1983 to examine the education delivery system of this Province. Recommendations made pertained to needed improvements generally within the Prince Edward Island education system. However, no changes were advocated for existing school district boundaries. In 1985, the Minister of Education struck a Ministerial Advisory Committee to report on the Paquette Commission Report. Again, no changes were recommended to existing school district boundaries.

Relative to the non-provincial areas of Canada, school district boundaries in the Northwest Territories have been established so that each school district represents one ethnic or language group. This also creates continuous geographic areas since each ethnic/linguistic group historically inhabited specific geographic areas. In total there are four school districts representing Inuit students. Among the Dene population there are five school districts.

Due to its size and different culture from the surrounding region Yellowknife has been subdivided into three districts. The Yellowknife public and separate school districts each share the same geographical boundaries, with one school board providing education to Roman Catholic students. The third school district in Yellowknife consists of one high school. It has its own administrative structure.

There have been no recent studies conducted on school district boundaries in this area of Canada. There has never been any dissatisfaction expressed with them since they reflect relevant cultural/linguistic characteristics -- hence, no reviews have been deemed necessary.

Under existing legislation, provincial and territorial governments have the power to create school districts, define school district boundaries, alter such boundaries and/or abolish these administrative units. In most cases, provision also exists to deal with district assets upon merger or abolishment. In the case of Saskatchewan current legislation provides for the establishment of an Educational Boundaries Commission with the following duties and powers: to consider any issue referred to it by the Minister concerning alteration of boundaries of school divisions and of sub-divisions; advising the Minister with respect to boundary changes insofar as these are affected by economic trends, population changes, growth of school enrolments and other factors which relate to the provision of educational services; and making recommendations with respect to research, studies or enquiries which in its opinion are necessary or desirable to the organization or reorganization of educational boundaries.

Current legislation in the Province of New Brunswick allows the Minister of Education with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to create new districts, abolish or alter boundaries of districts and consolidate districts. Provision also exists to amalgamate two or more districts should the need arise for more efficient school operation.

## Factual Information Concerning School Districts in Selected American States

**Florida**: 67 school districts; 2,232 schools; student enrolment 1,720,930; 75 Magnet schools and programs; modified school calendars to keep schools open on a 12-month basis; satellite schools; alternative schools; schools-within-schools; comprehensive delivery of services.

**New Jersey**: 590 school districts generally conforming to municipal boundaries; student enrolment 1,076,005; no recent studies of school district boundaries; considerable use of shared services between school districts.

**Colorado**: 176 school districts; student enrolment 562,755; no recent studies or evaluations of school districts.

**Michigan**: 561 local school districts of which 524 are K-12 and 37 are non K-12 (serving non-secondary students); districts reduced in number from 7,362 in 1912; district enrolments range from 188,000 students to less than 500 students in 82 districts; new legislation has been introduced to reduce the number of districts to 250; however, no action has been taken on this Bill; incentive grants offered to new districts formed by consolidation and/or annexation for the first three years of the new district's existence.

**California**: 1,017 school districts; elementary student enrolment 3,462,125; secondary student enrolment 1,309,853; 7,358 public schools; considerable emphasis placed on school district alteration; existence of co-terminous boundary laws.

**New York**: 718 locally administered public school districts; student enrolment 2,515,948; 11,000 small school districts in the early 1800's; school district boundaries formed from consolidation efforts and are not co-terminous with city or town boundaries; State is organized into 41 supervisory districts each containing several local school districts; 37 districts have one or fewer high schools; 397 small K-12 districts; 254 moderate and larger districts; emphasis placed on inter-district cooperation.

**Alabama**: 67 county school systems and 62 separate city school systems; all systems governed by autonomous Boards of Education; K-6 student enrolment 409,571; grades seven through nine student enrolment 176,209; grades ten through twelve student enrolment 140,378; attendance lines generally follow county boundaries and city limit boundaries.

**North Carolina**: 100 county units and 34 city units; student enrolment 1,065,399; 8 major educational regions; fundamental decision for establishing school district boundaries lies with the local board of education (city or county); existing laws for establishing boundaries and for merging school systems.

**Alaska**: 54 public school districts; student enrolment 102,849; 472 public schools and 163 private and denominational schools; school enrolment varies from 20 or fewer students to 2,000.

**Pennsylvania**: 501 public school districts; 29 school units; student enrolment 1,655,271 (a decline of 0.2% from the previous year).

**Kansas**: 304 unified school districts; student enrolment 430,864; no available rationale for determining school district boundaries; no recent studies or evaluations of school boundaries.

**Delaware**: 20 school districts; 174 schools; student enrolment 96,678; 85.9% of students transported; minimum district enrolment 593; maximum district enrolment 16,979; school district boundaries can only be changed by special legislation or by vote of the residents of a district in cases of merger.

**Idaho**: 45 county education systems comprising 113 school districts; student enrolment 228,013.

**Texas**: 1,052 school districts each responsible for grades K-12 and most operate at least two schools (elementary and high school); student enrolment 3,300,000; minimum district enrolment 3; maximum district enrolment 190,290; local district boundaries determined many years ago and have changed relatively little in recent time; district boundaries unrelated to any political subdivision such as towns or counties; no recent evaluation of district organization; districts are consolidated, divided or reorganized by the popular vote of the people in the district; district merger requires a successful election in both districts concerned.

**South Dakota**: 264 school districts/systems; student enrolment 142,825; considerable school district reorganization presently occurring.

**Missouri**: 545 school districts; student enrolment 807,934; existence of a "Board of Arbitration" to handle school district boundary disputes; existing laws governing establishment of school districts,

| | |
|---|---|
| | reorganization, consolidation, annexation and boundary changes. |
| **Georgia**: | 194 school districts; 1,800 public schools (K-12); student enrolment 1,100,000. |
| **Wisconsin**: | 429 school districts; student enrolment 1,340,982; 2,028 public schools; 963 private schools. |
| **Arkinsas**: | 324 school districts; student enrolment 427,368; 1,101 schools; no set formula or rationale for determining school district boundaries; Act 30 of 1989 creates a mechanism for additional funding of consolidating or annexing districts. |
| **Oregon**: | 301 school districts; student enrolment 439,389; educational units referred to as unified districts, elementary districts or union high school districts. |
| **Arizona**: | 219 school districts (elementary, high school and unified); 824 elementary schools; 158 high schools; no recent evaluation of school district boundaries. |
| **Minnesota**: | 438 school districts; student enrolment 723,051. |
| **Iowa**: | Evidence of considerable school district reorganization; restructuring brochures available. |
| **New Hampshire**: | 171 school districts; 455 schools; student enrolment 190,640; per pupil expenditure $4,007.00. |
| **Mississippi**: | 152 school districts; 872 public schools; student enrolment 477,439. |
| **Utah**: | 40 school districts; student enrolment 444,732; evidence of considerable school consolidation having occurred in the past twenty years. |
| **Rhode Island**: | 37 school districts; student enrolment 157,285; district enrolment breakdown includes: (1-999 students) 5; (1,000-2,499 students) 11; (2,500-4,999 students) 14; (5,000-9,999 students) 5; (10,000-24,999 students) 2. |
| **Virginia**: | 137 school districts (county, town and city); student enrolment 963,213; school divisions conform to boundaries of counties and cities. |
| **Illinois**: | 987 school districts; student enrolment 1,766,324 (a decrease of 1.5% from the past year). |

## II. INVESTIGATION

### Review of Local School District Boundary Studies

Three major boundary studies have been undertaken in this Province since 1986, namely Roebothan (1987a), Treslan (1988a) and Verge (1989). Established by the Integrated, Roman Catholic and Pentecostal Education Councils respectively, each boundary review contained a number of recommendations for modifying current school district boundaries. Council reaction to suggested recommendations has varied considerably, ranging from cautious and selective acceptance by the Integrated Education Council to conservative inaction on the part of the Roman Catholic and Pentecostal Education Councils relative to a majority of suggested recommendations. Notwithstanding the fact that these studies were extensions of significant earlier investigations, each contained important implications for the future success of this denominational education system.

#### The Task Force on Integrated School District Boundaries

The Task Force on Integrated School District Boundaries was established in May 1986. To establish a theoretical framework for conclusions reached, literature was examined to determine what experts in the field of school district organization had reached concerning such matters as optimum size for school districts, alternatives to district consolidation and criteria to be used in reorganizing school districts. Emphasis was placed on developments which have had major implications for district reorganization in Newfoundland -- diversification of the school curriculum at all levels and the inclusion of special programmes designed to meet the interests and needs of all children; improvements in the provincial transportation system, and reductions in enrolment and number of district schools operated.

The Task Force concluded that the most common approach to school district restructuring was consolidation, with other options including establishment of regional or intermediate service centres with specialized staff personnel, the development of regional services through school board sharing and the strengthening of smaller districts through provision of extra funding. Further consolidation of Integrated districts was deemed possible in certain regions of the Province. Moreover, district sharing, including inter-denominational sharing, was proposed for other regions, while in others some form of regional services could be necessary. Overall, the Task Force concluded that in a Province such as Newfoundland, with regions of low population density, scarce resources, and difficult climatic and travel conditions, school districts must be designed to meet local needs if comprehensive educational programmes are to be delivered to all students.

This Task Force Report focused on the immediate need for consolidation of specific Integrated school districts in the face of declining enrolment and spiralling operational costs. This was evident from the nature of the basic questions which guided recommendations pertaining to the issue of district consolidation: potential educational advantages/dis-advantages to both students and teachers; economies vs dis-economies of scale, and start-up costs; effect on provincial allocation of teachers, board office staff and funds; compactness of the reorganized area; local interest and parental involvement; impact on school closures and student bussing; impact on both short and long-term district debts; enrolment projections, and alternatives to school district consolidation. Denominational sharing and the concept of the inter-denominational school board represented two major considerations for further exploration.

The Report generally supported two concepts of district alteration -- regional services and district sharing. The usefulness of these techniques for distributing limited resources was advanced realizing that these approaches were not an alternative to further consolidation for some areas of the Province. Whereas sharing was advocated whenever possible, regional services was considered a viable alternative in those areas served by school boards of different denominations. In fact, the Integrated Education Council was asked to encourage the Department of Education to consider the principle of comprehensive regional services to Integrated, Roman Catholic and Pentecostal school districts as a means of improving the standards of education in these districts.

The Task Force Report made a number of conclusions and recommendations of particular interest to this Royal Commission of Enquiry. However, major recommendations in the Report appear to be guided primarily by an emphasis on enrolment. For instance, the Task Force considered the figure of 2,000 students (presently the point below which no district can operate without Ministerial approval) to be reasonable in certain areas, "given the geography and demography of this province, even though four or five times that number would be desirable" (p. 38). Acknowledging that it might be necessary to operate some school districts with enrolments less than 2,000 students, consolidation or some form of inter-denominational cooperation was seen as a means of bolstering student enrolments. Interestingly, this Task Force believed it unwise to permit any Integrated school district to continue operation if its enrolment fell below 1,500 students. Thus, adherence to specific enrolment quotas place a major constraint on the otherwise innovativeness of this Report -- especially since there is no conclusive data pertaining to the ideal student enrolment for any school district.

The laudable emphasis on inter-denominational sharing arrangements relative to educational services will not eliminate the duplication currently characterizing education in this Province. Granted, one could experience a decrease in duplicated services, but the on-going overlap of district boundaries (Roman Catholic, Integrated, Pentecostal and Seventh Day Adventist) will by virtue of definition alone continue to provide serious replication in delivery of educational services. To totally eliminate this occurrence would necessitate redrawing of individual district boundaries -- an untenable task since many districts could end up with no students. While inter-denominational sharing might have an immediate short-term impact on district viability, its ultimate contribution rests on the assumption of the status quo being retained relative to denominational school districts -- that is, 29 individual school districts each competing and struggling to retain its educational viability.

The Task Force Report refers to "some form of inter-denominational cooperation for the administration of schools, as an alternative to consolidation" (p. 53). The Report states that the most realistic possibility for this scenario "might be an arrangement whereby one board would have representatives from the other on both its membership and professional staff. A more complex arrangement would be to have legislative provision made for the establishment of a 'fully integrated school board' which would report to a joint management committee of both Education Councils" (p. 54). There could be important implications deriving from this statement for the future of denominational education in this Province.

Where sufficient numbers of students are present, provision now legally exists to operate a fully functioning school district. Any attempt to create a single school board representing multiple faiths would have to provide a workable management structure to prevent minority faiths from being ignored in the decision making exercise. In theory, this should be attainable but in actual practice may not work. The reason is quite simple -- human nature simply favours the majority point of view, thereby creating the possibility of denominational erosion. At best, such an administrative approach should be operationalized on an experimental basis where the student enrolment decline is problematic to both existing districts -- Integrated and Roman Catholic.

In general, the Task Force on Integrated school district boundaries offered meaningful recommendations regarding the management of Integrated school districts. Most of its recommendations concerning consolidation of small districts have been acted upon by the Integrated Education Council. These short-term/short-range recommendations have been mainly "in house" in nature. The only two long-range recommendations -- increased denominational sharing and the inter-denominational school board (referred to as a fully integrated school board) -- have been placed in abeyance pending further discussions with the Pentecostal and Roman Catholic Education Councils. Any major assistance deriving from this Report is therefore limited to the two relatively unresearched and unexplained long-range recommendations alluded to.

## The Roman Catholic Educational District Boundaries Report

In the Spring of 1987, the Catholic Education Council approved the appointment of a three member committee to study the boundaries of Roman Catholic educational districts in Newfoundland and Labrador. To provide a theoretical perspective for a study of educational district boundaries, a number of procedures were followed. Literature was reviewed to examine such concepts as optimum size for educational districts, alternatives to district consolidation, criteria to be used in organizing educational districts, patterns of educational district organization in other Canadian Provinces that could have relevance to Newfoundland, and recent developments in educational district reorganization. A number of earlier boundary reports were examined, on-site visitations were made to all Roman Catholic school districts and a series of meetings were held with representatives of various educational organizations.

Based on a careful assessment of the current situation confronting many Newfoundland school districts, this Report advocated adoption of the co-terminous educational district concept as an alternate governance format for Newfoundland education. While capitalizing on many of the strengths identified with the regional service concept and educational district sharing, this governance approach was viewed as being capable of minimizing the current emphasis on student enrolment as a sole determiner of district viability and, instead, emphasizing the geographic area to be administered. This concept could serve as a viable means through which a number of relatively non-viable struggling districts might be merged to form an educational region. Where previously a number of these districts -- Roman Catholic and Integrated -- had existed, there would now be only two districts sharing co-terminous boundaries. One district would be Roman Catholic and the other Integrated. Each district would operate from a common central office complex with its own school board, superintendent and religious education coordinator. All other coordinators and district services would be shared.

This administrative arrangement was considered capable of minimizing the extensive travel now involved to service schools and there could be sharing of all other coordinators, religious education excepted. Opportunities would also exist for increased local shared service arrangements through inter-denominational cooperation. The major advantage of this arrangement was that each denominational agency could still retain its presence in the area. The possibility of aligning the School Tax Authority with this new region offered interesting possibilities for addressing the current financial plight of many Newfoundland school districts.

Both primary and secondary recommendations were proposed for each district visited. Primary recommendations were divided into two classes -- immediate and long-range. Primary immediate recommendations were to take effect as early as July 1, 1989 and the primary long-range recommendations were to be implemented not later than September 1, 1992. Secondary recommendations merely consisted of management related guidance designed to assist districts in their response to the primary immediate recommendations.

Mindful of the extent of innovative change contained within the proposed recommendations, the Report drew attention to the critical leadership role of Government which was considered essential to the realization of proposed structural change in the denominational education system. Specifically, Government was challenged to take the following responsible actions:

> *Infusion of additional monies to allow districts to implement recommended changes.*
>
> *Protection of educational personnel involved in district mergers.*
>
> *Alteration of central office formulae to allow acceptable program delivery.*
>
> *Cooperation with the Denominational Education Councils to initiate/foster inter-denominational planning.*
>
> *Equalizing educational opportunity throughout the Province (p. 96).*

The Roman Catholic School District Boundaries Report was submitted to the Catholic Education Council in February 1988. Contained within the Report were 35 primary recommendations and 13 secondary recommendations. The primary recommendations were sub-divided into 12 immediate (short-range) recommendations and 23 long-range recommendations. In actual fact the Report was intended to serve as a catalyst whereby Roman Catholics might share with others through educational leadership.

The nature of the recommendations contained in this Report clearly reveals a need to alter the structure of the present denominational system -- a structure which is 20 years old -- and replace it with a streamlined mode of operation attuned to the needs of this Province in the Year 2000 and beyond! In this connection, the primary and immediate recommendations address means by which the Catholic education system might operate in the short-term, while the primary long-range recommendations address the much broader and more complex issue of a radically re-designed denominational system structure for delivering educational services to the students of this Province.

Close examination of this Report reveals four major premises underlying the proposed recommendations. First, there were obviously important reasons leading to the need for both immediate and long-range recommendations. Secondly, there was the issue of perceived immediate district governance problems contributed to by declining enrolment, financial instability and programme delivery. Thirdly, there was the necessity of guaranteeing the future viability of the Catholic education system in addition to streamlining that system in terms of programme delivery while concomitantly strengthening denominationalism. Finally, there was obviously a need to increase otherwise limited educational services along with the necessity of revitalizing the Local School Committee concept to input local concerns to educational decision making.

Particular attention was focused on an explanation of the seemingly contradictory concept "Bigger is not necessarily Better!" While the Report recognized that district mergers solely for the purpose of achieving bigger administrative units should not be proposed, two closely associated realities had to be acknowledged. To begin with, at the present time effective management of perceived district weaknesses necessitated some consolidation. It was noted that these weaknesses were perceived by districts themselves. Moreover, for the future of Catholic education, increase in district enrolments would be a desirable outcome of the streamlining envisaged for the governance of Newfoundland education as per the long-range recommendations advocated.

Considerable thought was devoted to regionalization of Newfoundland education generally within the denominational context. Although it was conceivable to have a Government imposed regionalization of education as in other Provinces, this was obviously not the answer to the current problems confronting Newfoundland school districts. A variation of this phenomenon was envisaged -- one that would enhance the denominational system, yet would be firmly under the control of denominational educational authorities internal rather than external to the system. Such streamlining was deemed critical to increasing programme delivery/offerings while removing unnecessary duplication. Entailing greater commitment on the part of all parties to the concept of inter-denominational cooperation, this mode of operation was looked on as guaranteeing a religious presence in district education without fear of assimilation in various areas of the Province.

A final consideration in this Report centred on the role of the Integrated Education Council and Integrated Districts in bringing these long-range recommendations to fruition. The Report was not intended to dictate to these groups. It was simply that Integrated school districts and the Integrated Education Council would naturally become partners in the proposed streamlining process envisaged for Newfoundland education. Therefore, a very first requirement for achieving future system change rested with inter-Council cooperation, hopefully initiated by the Catholic Education Council.

The Roman Catholic School District Boundaries Report contains at least two powerful messages for the current Royal Commission of Enquiry. Notwithstanding the urgency of operationalizing the primary immediate recommendations for the short-term viability of the Catholic education system, two long-range considerations must be explored if there is to be a serious attempt made to streamline the current denominational education system. These include the emphasis on inter-denominational cooperation/sharing and implementation of educational regions replete with co-terminous district boundaries.

Within the current denominational district framework there is considerable evidence of inter-denominational cooperation at work. Shared services resulting from this cooperation are viable operations provided that formalized agreements are worked out in advance by both parties and closely adhered to. Evidence of these formal agreements include Fogo Island, Pasadena, Glenwood, Plum Point/Brig Bay, Wabush and Baie de Verde. Clearly, further inter-denominational cooperation should be encouraged to the benefit of all parties concerned.

This Report viewed inter-denominational cooperation as necessary to promulgate the long-term interests of denominational education as well as the interests of students in rural areas of this Province. However, the best interests of all parties are protected when well-planned strategies for such cooperation are devised, legal contracts are entered into and on-going evaluation procedures are in place. This was considered to be particularly crucial in respect to inter-denominational sharing of schools. The Report also makes reference to the many informal sharing arrangements presently working quite satisfactorily between Roman Catholic and Integrated districts. These arrangements, dealing with minimization of personnel overlap, were duly noted. However, despite the advantages deriving from this laudable activity, the serious overlap of district educational services continues to exist. This was considered due in part to district geography and population patterns, and the absence of any real incentive to undertake these types of activities within the current system structure. Mindful of this reality, a major emphasis was placed through the long-range recommendations on restructuring the delivery of denominational education services by implementing educational regionalization via the co-terminous district boundary concept.

The Report envisaged Newfoundland denominational education being restructured into 12 educational regions, although this figure was variable and could range from 10 to 14. The concept was considered to have particular relevance to the whole Province, especially the South West Coast, Northern Peninsula, Eastern Newfoundland and the Avalon Peninsula. To test the viability of this concept, the Catholic Educational Council and the Integrated Education Council were urged to commence proceedings to designate the Connaigre Peninsula as an educational region consisting of two educational districts -- one Roman Catholic and one Integrated -- sharing co-terminous district boundaries and working from a shared central office facility located at Harbour Breton. This pilot project was to be implemented by July 1, 1989, with all other proposed educational regions to be implemented by July 1, 1992. However, to date no action has been taken on this proposed concept by the respective Denominational Education Councils.

### The Pentecostal Educational District Boundary Report

The Pentecostal Education Council launched a study of its educational system in 1987. A final Report was filed with the Pentecostal Education Council in April 1989. Two tasks were immediately obvious to the writer of that Report. The first was to study the existing school board boundary as it affected the delivery of services, and the second was to examine cooperative school board models and make recommendations pertaining thereto. The purpose of the first task was to determine whether the present one-board arrangement provided adequate services to schools, while the purpose of the second task was to determine if philosophically, and/or administratively, the Pentecostal Board could cooperate with other boards in some areas of education such as small schools, specialized services, etc.

A number of pertinent findings were advanced as a basis for educational recommendations having reviewed recent statistics and reports relating to education in Newfoundland and visiting with various groups and individuals closely associated with Newfoundland education. It was concluded that the denominational system of education is embedded in the Newfoundland way of life and that very few groups are pressing for its demise, even though many are suggesting changes. There was perceived to be openness to more cooperative efforts by the Integrated and Catholic Education Councils, as evidenced in the Reports of committees on their district boundaries. There was a firm commitment to the Pentecostal Education system by those who work within it, yet there was also both openness and caution with regards to cooperation with other boards. Whereas school enrolment in the Province was decreasing generally, this decline in enrolment was being felt by only a few Pentecostal schools! The Report also acknowledged that phasing out smaller schools was a painful dilemma and in these cases, joint services with other boards was considered to be quite acceptable. Finally, the Report noted that there was a consensus among board office personnel and teachers that professional services to schools was restricted because of the geography of the present district, but this was not the case for administrative services.

The Report proposed a number of possible organizational models ranging from leaving the system as it is (one school board with the maximum number of personnel according to the present regulations) through creation of one or more additional districts (with either one or two school boards) to inviting the Integrated and Catholic Education Councils to cooperate in the setting up of co-terminous districts as suggested by the Catholic Council Boundary Report. Advantages and disadvantages of each model were discussed.

Interestingly, the recommendations contained within this Report were based on consideration of crucial factors which are also critical to the deliberations of the current Royal Commission of Enquiry. These include:

(1) Means should not become ends. The abolition or retention of any traditional system is not a legitimate objective in itself.

(2) Suggestions for change should be made with a creative anticipation of the reactions to that change.

(3) Changes sometimes have to be made in order to prevent more traumatic changes in the future.

(4) In making changes, reasonable caution should be taken that they are not irreversible.

(5) In every system financial limitations should be considered (p. 22).

Too, proposed recommendations addressed what was perceived to be the real difficulty in the present system, namely, the delivery of professional in-service to teachers.

Five major recommendations were advocated for the future delivery of educational services to students in the Pentecostal Education system. Recommendations were futuristic, linking to the spirit of inter-denominational cooperation and innovative structural change proposed in both the Integrated and Roman Catholic Boundary Reports. In particular, the Pentecostal Education Council was urged to invite both the Integrated and Catholic Education Councils and the Department of Education to consider the organization of provincial education along two distinct lines -- philosophical/administrative and professional services. For the philosophical/administrative aspect, school boards would function as at present. District boundaries should be co-terminous. Whereas Integrated and Roman Catholic districts may be co-terminous one for one, the smaller Pentecostal enrolment would mean that each of its districts would have to be co-terminous with more than one of the other two districts. If found convenient, all denominational boards within the same geographical boundaries could share the same office facilities.

To provide professional services, the Department of Education would be involved in setting up a resource centre with programme specialists and resource materials for schools in each co-terminous district. This arrangement was similar to that proposed by the Catholic Boundaries Report, except for the involvement of the Department of Education.

The Pentecostal Education Council was also asked to invite the other Councils and the Department of Education to set up a pilot district for a two-year period. Moreover, assuming that this pilot project might prove successful and that such a system should then develop in the Province, each newly formed Pentecostal school board and the Pentecostal Education Council were urged to take steps whereby delivery of Pentecostal education to Pentecostal children might be enhanced. In the event that the pilot project did not prove successful the Pentecostal Education Council was asked to establish two school districts for the Province, with separate board offices. Overall, this Boundary Study was aimed at strengthening the Pentecostal Education system while also contributing in some way to all education in this Province.

### Roman Catholic Education Council and Pentecostal Education Council Reaction Reports Catholic Education Council Reaction.

The May 5, 1988 meeting of the Catholic Education Council witnessed the establishment of a Boundaries Reaction Committee to expedite further study and action on the recommendations submitted by the Roman Catholic Educational District Boundaries Committee (Treslan Report) in February 1988. Proposed recommendations were to be studied from the perspective of the Catholic School system of the Province, for liaison with Government and other educational agencies and with school boards.

There was general consensus that the Treslan Report had provided considerable impetus to the consideration of important issues facing all Provincial educators. Provincial Educational Agencies (Department of Education, N.T.A., N.L.S.T.A., etc.) were generally enthusiastic about the recommendations for further consolidation of school districts and for increased denominational cooperation. Most Catholic School Boards recognized the need for further consolidation among the Catholic Boards in the Province, and they also generally recognized the need for increased inter-denominational cooperation in the years ahead.

This optimism notwithstanding, Roman Catholic School Boards were generally concerned over the model of educational regions proposed in the Treslan Report, while other educational agencies expressed reservations over the dual administration model recommended. There was widespread concern among school board central office staff -- professional and business - relative to the future security of their employment, should the recommendations of that Report be accepted. Too, school boards were concerned that adoption of the Treslan Report recommendations would result in a reduction of professional services to pupils and teachers. The Boundaries Reaction Committee listened closely to this conservative element in Newfoundland education and made recommendations accordingly. Arguing for the need to maintain and improve quality education through change, the committee supported only the principal of incremental short-term change, losing sight completely of the leadership challenge presented to the Catholic Education Council through the Treslan Report. Thus, minimal realignment of selected districts was deemed necessary in the face of change forces referred to as the "foreseeable future".

The Boundaries Reaction Committee recommended non-acceptance of the regionalization of Newfoundland education, opting instead to encourage further inter-denominational sharing. It did, however, view the Local Education Committee structure as key in the future to the partnership of home, school and church within any regional co-terminous board arrangement! Major focus was placed on the 12 primary immediate recommendations, of which only five were recommended to be acted upon. Only two of these original recommendations had not mentioned retention of the status quo -- namely, a merger of two West Coast school districts and alteration of the current Avalon Peninsula school district area.

All decisions on the primary long-range recommendations were to be deferred until such time as a suggested pilot district could be developed, put in place, tested and evaluated. In this instance, it was recommended that the Catholic Education Council approach both the Integrated and Pentecostal Education Councils with the proposal that a model of systemic regional cooperation be developed and piloted at an appropriate location in the Province. The following principles would have to be included from the point of view of the Catholic Education Council: independent school boards, distinct schools, joint services arrangements for schools, where appropriate, with each board to have formal responsibility for the students of the denomination (s) it represents.

All ten secondary recommendations pertaining to the operationalization of a Local School Committee Structure in each school district as per Section 22 of the Schools Act were rejected by this Boundaries Reaction Committee. Their rationale was that very few matters can be sub-delegated to a School Committee for final action. For all practical intent and purposes, Section 22 limits the role of a School Committee to recommending and advising, and these duties can be performed quite efficiently by school board staff personnel. However, it was recommended that the Catholic Education Council discuss with other Councils and approach the Department of Education with a proposal to broaden the powers of sub-delegation for school boards, so that Local Education Committees might, if the school board decided, be authorized to make recommendations to the board on all educational matters. The balance of this Committee's recommendations were basically "in-house", designed to help the Catholic School system cope with the problem of declining enrolment. To date, no further action has occurred regarding the piloting of an educational region.

### Pentecostal Education Council Reaction.

At a meeting of the Pentecostal Education Council in May 1989 it was agreed to create a Boundaries Reaction Committee to expedite further study and action on the recommendations contained in the Boundary Study Report (Verge Report) presented in April 1989. This Reaction Committee reviewed all literature, reports and meeting minutes used in the development of the Verge Report. The Committee was quick to point out that extremely small samples were used in the original gathering of information from various segments of the Pentecostal population. Since sampling in the Verge Report was deemed inadequate, decisions made on such limited sampling were held open to question! The Reaction Committee distributed questionnaires to all schools and professional central office staff seeking respondents' views on a range of issues associated with the Verge Report. Meetings were also conducted with local school committees, the district business manager, superintendent and representatives of the school board.

Recommendations proposed by the Reaction Committee were based on a number of conclusions. First, there was a general consensus that the Verge Report provided considerable impetus to the consideration of important educational issues currently facing this particular district. There was perceived to be a need to retain a separate Pentecostal School system in this Province if philosophical distinctions were to be realized. A number of concerns were raised with regard to the co-terminous boundaries concept in that this model was viewed as the first step toward the demise of the Pentecostal School system in Newfoundland. The practicality of a model which recommended three Pentecostal districts being co-terminous with 12 Roman Catholic and/or Integrated districts was called into question. Moreover, it was felt that such a model could actually result in a reduction of professional services to pupils and teachers.

Concomitantly, only one of the recommendations proposed in the Verge Report was considered acceptable to the Reaction Committee, namely, that the Pentecostal Education Council give serious consideration to establishing two school districts for the Province. Such a model more than any other, with its extra personnel, would benefit small schools and in some ways could address certain needs of Pentecostals in non-Pentecostal schools. A number of "in house" recommendations were also included to enhance the future operational effectiveness of the Pentecostal Education system. Included in these recommendations were certain limits to be entertained relative to sharing with other denominational systems. Overall, the recommendations advocated by the Reaction Committee suggested retention of the status quo, with possible expansion from one to two self-contained school districts.

### Potential Impact on the Newfoundland Denominational System

Having examined the most recent Boundary Studies commissioned by the Denominational Education Councils, the potential impact on the Newfoundland denominational education system must be addressed. To begin with, the Integrated Boundaries Report leans toward further consolidation within the existing system structure as a means of establishing larger regional school systems while attempting to meet the varied needs of technology and the demands of society for a wider range of programmes and services. The regional service concept is viewed as a worthwhile approach for solving some of the problems associated with widespread districts, sparsely populated areas and small numbers of students within such areas.

School district sharing is a suggested alternative to the consolidation of smaller districts. This model attempts to provide additional educational programmes, services and facilities but without losing the advantages of local interest and local control over education. Necessary cooperation for such sharing must recognize local interests and inherent existing philosophies. The concept of inter-denominational sharing is advanced to improve the standard of education throughout the Province.

The Roman Catholic Boundaries Report suggests that cooperative and/or joint services may be necessary in certain areas of the Province to maintain a viable educational system while at the same time guaranteeing a Catholic identity. Cooperative services are considered viable provided formalized agreements are worked out by all parties and that these agreements are closely adhered to.

This Report states that a number of important variables must be entertained before an ideal educational district size can be determined. Specifically, a district should have the human, financial and physical resources to accomplish its educational goals. Other variables to be considered include educational leadership, local contact and the geography over which educational services must be delivered.

Consolidation is viewed as a viable organizational alternative by both the Roman Catholic Boundaries Committee and the Integrated Task Force. However, the Roman Catholic Boundaries Report acknowledges the counter arguments against consolidation, stating that they must not be ignored through an assumption that "bigger is better!" For example, increased bussing, more schools over larger geographic areas, increased cost of central office personnel transportation and creation of more bureaucracy does not automatically result in better education. Other concepts such as the Regional

Service concept, educational district sharing and the co-terminous educational district concept must be explored as viable alternatives to either consolidation or retention of the status quo. In particular, the Roman Catholic Boundaries Report suggests that retention of the status quo is only possible given a substantive infusion of Government funding to allow districts to upgrade their services to a reasonable and acceptable level. Implicit here is the fact that if such monies are not available, this alternative cannot be considered viable or realistic.

The Roman Catholic Boundaries Report emphasized the use of the co-terminous model as the most viable alternative for consideration by educational decision makers in Newfoundland. This arrangement would allow each denomination to maintain a presence in each co-terminous boundary region. The model would have all of the strengths identified with the regional services concept and the district sharing concept while minimizing the current emphasis on enrolment as a sole determiner of district viability.

The Pentecostal Boundary Report also leans toward greater inter-denominational cooperation, recommending the creation of three Pentecostal districts sharing co-terminous boundaries with Integrated and Roman Catholic districts. The functioning of these new districts would involve inter-denominational cooperation -- sharing of office facilities and professional services. To emphasize the importance of this recommendation, a pilot district was to be created as soon as possible in which the strengths of inter-denominational cooperation resulting in elimination of duplicated services could be verified.

Notwithstanding the fact that Council Reaction Committees subsequently recommended tabling of the futuristic models proposed in both the Catholic and Pentecostal Boundary Reports, and that the Integrated Boundary Report was basically "in house", the overall impact of these three Boundary Reports individually and cumulatively on the denominational system of education in this Province is substantial. To this end, there are a number of implications deriving from these Studies of significant import for this Royal Commission of Enquiry.

(1) There is general recognition of the fact that duplication of educational services in this Province can be drastically reduced to the point of elimination by emphasizing greater inter-denominational cooperation/sharing within an altered governance structure. Inter-denominational boards (advocated by the Integrated Task Force) and the establishment of co-terminous district boundaries (advocated by the Catholic and Pentecostal Boundary Studies respectively) should be adopted as a means of streamlining the current denominational education system.

(2) To ensure both efficiency and effectiveness of educational programme delivery, existing denominational districts should be consolidated to form educational regions. Only in this manner can the concept of increased inter-denominational sharing have any substantial impact on the Newfoundland educational system.

(3) Each of the three Boundary Reports has called on the two major actors in Newfoundland education -- Church and Government -- to cooperate in the need to help local school districts overcome functional shortcomings attributed to the current governance structure of education in this Province.

(4) Any attempt to alter the governance structure of Newfoundland education must provide opportunities for input from local authorities and community groups. However, it is crucial that these groups be prepared to consider various governance options in as objective a manner as possible.

(5) Consultation should also be initiated with the Newfoundland Teachers' Association and the Newfoundland and Labrador School Trustees' Association relative to regionalizing educational services in this Province. In particular, consultation concerning the impact of structural change on educational personnel and the Constitutions governing school board

membership must be jointly arrived at.

(6) The three Boundary Reports represent an attempt by one member of the dual medium of education in Newfoundland -- namely the Church acting through its denominational authorities -- to address the need for system change in light of current reality constraints: declining enrolments, financial instability, programme delivery, school closure/consolidation, population shifts and alleged duplication and inefficiency. For these reasons, recommendations contained in these Reports are crucial to the deliberations of this Royal Commission of Enquiry.

(7) It is possible to have separate and distinct denominational districts in this Province, and in a manner which minimizes duplication of services. Verification of this fact rests in the "dove-tailing" of these three Boundary Reports.

(8) Assuming that each Boundary Report was derived from substantial system and community input, it is clear that the will of the people in Newfoundland currently favours structural change within a denominational education framework.

## Delivery of Health Care and Social Services in Newfoundland

### Health Care (Department of Health)

Health care services in Newfoundland can be divided into four categories according to their structure and the kinds of services they provide: Medical Care, preventive/public health services, home care, and long-term care. These services are delivered through health care districts which are determined by a number of factors including geography, population served, physical access (such as roads) and resources (personnel and other) available.

The Medical Care structure is comprised of office out-patient care, clinic services, community hospitals and area hospitals. Office out-patient care is delivered through offices located at the local district level. There may be several such offices in one community depending on the size and population of that community or a single office may serve the populations of a number of communities. Clinic services may include laboratory and X-Ray facilities in addition to medical offices, and may have a number of day or over night holding beds with attendant nurses. There are sixteen community hospitals throughout the Province providing primary health care at the local level. General (24-hour) hospital care is provided by general practitioners only -- no speciality medical services are available. There are five area hospitals in the Province. These provide a full range of speciality medical care including medicine, surgery, obstetrics, radiology, psychiatry and pathology. There are four regional referral hospitals (outside St. John's) which act as referral hospitals for the other hospitals in the area. These are larger hospitals and provide all speciality services and some sub-speciality services such as ophthalmology, urology, paediatrics, etc. There are also five hospitals located in St. John's which provide a complete range of speciality and sub-speciality services for the Province. Any medical care which cannot be provided at the tertiary care hospitals must be referred to other provinces.

The preventive/public health services structure operates through five public health regions based on geography and population served. Grouped for administrative purposes these regions are as follows: St. John's, Eastern, Central, Western and Northern (Appendix). Each health unit is organized into a regional office staffed by the medical officer of health (chief executive officer), regional directors of public health nursing and public health inspection, and consultants in nutrition, health education, communicable disease control, and reproductive health; two to three sub-regional offices staffed by supervisory and some field staff, and district or field level offices. In this way public health services are provided to every community in the province. Provincial consultants in each of the public health areas are located at the Department of Health in S. John's.

The Home Care structure provides services in every community throughout the Province. Community, area or regional, hospitals provide nursing and other home care services to persons newly discharged from hospitals or who are referred for continuing home care. This relates to the hospital district. In some areas home care boards have been created to provide a wide range of home care services to a specified geographic area. These are organized, funded and staffed independently of hospitals and public health services. Public Health has traditionally provided home care services to all other parts of the Province not served by any home care programmes.

The Long Term Care structure provides services either in group home or institution settings throughout the Province. These services are available to individuals who are unable to care for themselves and for whom care cannot be provided by family or friends. The type of care may be limited to personal care in some instances but may include a full range of nursing care in some institutions.

Social Services (Department of Social Services)

The Department of Social Services has a mandate to develop, implement and deliver programs which help individuals and families meet their needs for income maintenance, protection, guidance, support and rehabilitative services. This service delivery is provided within the parameters of relevant legislation. (Appendix).

A range of services in six (6) program areas are delivered through a network of five (5) Regional Offices and fifty-three (53) District Offices. The program areas are Social Assistance, Child Welfare, Employment Opportunities, Developmental and Rehabilitative Services, Youth Corrections and Daycare and Homemaker Services.

Prior to 1969, all services were delivered through a series of District Offices located across the Province with administrative authority centrally located in St. John's. In 1969, the process of decentralizing was started with the establishment of the St. John's Region. By 1972, five (5) Regions had been established with administrative authority decentralized to the Regional Office. Regional Offices provide direction and support to the District Offices in program and administrative areas. Staffing in the Regional Office consists generally of the following positions: Regional Director, Assistant Regional Director, Regional Administrative Officer, Program Consultants and Clerical support.

The District Offices have direct responsibility for the front line delivery of services in the various program areas. These offices are generally staffed with a District Manager, who reports to an Assistant Regional Director, a number of Social Work positions and some Clerical support. These offices range in size from two (2) to forty-six (46) people depending on location and degree of service need. Depending on the demand for service and the ability to fund, all Regions may hire additional temporary staff for extra assistance or special projects.

### Related Literature and Research Associated with Determination of School District Boundaries

Literature and research relating to the management of school district boundaries is voluminous and for the most part contradictory. A computer search of this material detects three major themes emerging which clearly demonstrate the significance of school district boundaries to educational decision making. It should be noted, however, that this compendium of literature includes only a sampling of the documentation relating to this crucial dimension of school system management. Section one addresses the theme of administration of local education with emphasis on district reorganization considerations, the centralization-decentralization debate and financial implications of district boundary alterations. Section two discusses the theme of management of school district alteration focusing on the need for district restructuring and potential factors which determine school district size. Section three describes the theme of various models of school district operation which might be used to achieve desired district effectiveness and efficiency. Consolidation of school districts and various alternatives to consolidation are described.

## THEME 1: ADMINISTRATION OF LOCAL EDUCATION

Section 93 of the Constitution Act, 1867, assigned responsibility for education of students to the individual Provinces. Implicit in this assignment was the understanding that each Province would create an administrative delivery structure which might effectively and efficiently provide equality of educational opportunity for all students. The delivery mode used for this purpose is the local school district, a geographic area of student population over which a governing body (the school board) makes decisions regarding both purpose and direction of educational experience. Charged with major leadership responsibilities, school boards and other educational administrators rely on communication, cooperation and mutual support from a variety of individuals and groups both within and without the district to achieve a blend of effective governance and effective administration considered necessary for goal achievement in a viable school district.

### District Reorganization Considerations

Educational goals can be viewed in the form of two major mandates -- educational and democratic. Educational decision makers bear responsibility for redressing the negative effects of socio-economic differences in district communities to ensure equality for all learners regardless of extenuating circumstances. However, to be effective in this regard requires opportunity for intimate contact and interaction with clients to temper insensitivity to local needs. School boards in particular must be responsive to the personal advocacy of individual parents, yet do so with the needs of the total district in mind. Thus, school district adherents must be assured of ready access to educational decision makers in all matters pertaining to the education of their children. The effectiveness implicit in this two-way communication, cooperation and mutual support triad is strongly impacted on by many system and environmental forces, not the least of which is district size.

Policy making and policy implementation are critical dimensions of school district functioning. Development of general guide lines governing long-range district activities is a complex exercise requiring input from those ultimately affected by the policy outcome. Effectiveness of that policy is typically measured in terms of the reactions of various 'publics', which in turn is either facilitated or constrained by the size of the school district. Viewed in this manner, the process of policy implementation in a school district is very much a political exercise (LaRoque, 1983). Implementation activities at the school level and the influence of school board and central office officials on that policy typically takes the form of three models of activity -- classical/technological, political and cultural/evolutionary. The outcome effect of these models of activity is affected by many factors within a given school district. In particular, where there are conflicting conceptualizations of the roles of various actors in the implementation process the likelihood of meaningful implementation is limited. Hence, the need for open lines of communication in relatively compact viable districts.

School district governance and administration occasionally involves consideration of the issue of district reorganization as a means of enhancing the viability of this administrative unit. Some school districts become perfect candidates for reorganization (including boundary alteration) because of low and/or decreasing student enrolment and very high per pupil expenditures (White, 1986). Other contributing factors might include the presence of large neighbouring districts to which pupils could be transported, and some services already shared with these districts. If a decision is made to alter boundaries, priority must be given to the effect on students. Such a plan should be enacted only if students will benefit academically, and only then in such a manner that the process takes place smoothly and with strong community support.

Today, school districts have become larger across North America. Likewise their operations, programmes and services reflect the changes wrought by increasing size. Each individual district must develop its own functional equation of opportunities, constraints, economies and dis-economies as a means of defining its own ideal operation. Whatever decision is reached regarding the need to alter district size, it must be reflective of three critical considerations -- fiscal efficiency, school effectiveness and community identity (Webb, 1989).

Centralization - Decentralization Debate

Organization of education at the local level frequently involves debate over the merits and demerits of any centralization-decentralization tendency. Centralization is usually associated with a move towards consolidation of school districts, although the phenomenon can also occur within the individual school district itself. The effect on district size of the debate surrounding centralization-decentralization becomes evident when one assumes that a system becomes more centralized when control over decisions moves in the direction of layman to practitioner to administrator to policy maker, in essence increasing the distance between policy maker and policy recipient. The system is considered to become more decentralized when control over decision making moves in the opposite direction (Treslan, 1988b).

The Illinois State Board of Education, in a study of issues related to school district organization, provided evidence clearly favouring centralization as a means of increasing educational advantage. Such reorganization was deemed to be ultimately beneficial to students, teachers, tax payers and the State as a whole. Results based on high school statistics clearly showed that teachers and students in smaller schools were at a disadvantage relative to the programme of high school course offerings, student achievement levels and the number of planning preparations needed by teachers. It should be emphasized that although information was obtained for school, not district size, the sampling design incorporated sufficient diversity to make the results representative and generalizable to school districts in the State of Illinois.

As far as rural education is concerned in the United States too much emphasis is often placed on centralization of education, resulting in school system consolidation simply as a means of improving educational opportunity (Rios, 1987). Whereas in 1986 over 77% of American school districts enroled fewer than 2,500 students in grades K - 12, the actual number of districts had been drastically reduced through centralization efforts from 127,531 districts in 1930 - 31 to 16 in 1982 - 83. Further consolidation of these districts has not been recommended simply because the results of such centralization merely served to damage the infrastructure of large rural areas.

The case involving North Carolina (Sher, 1986) is typical of the parry and thrust of the current centralization-decentralization debate relative to policy development concerning school district consolidation efforts. Arguments against district consolidation include: merger decisions too complex and far-reaching in their impact to be made anyway other than on a case-by-case basis; good schools and school districts come in all shapes and sizes; the State should discontinue all 'back door' approaches to board mergers; there are a variety of alternatives to consolidation that can expand educational opportunities without abolishing existing units, and organizational issues such as mergers are very rarely the key to enhancing the quality and efficiency of public education. Arguments for district consolidation aimed at assisting this process involve: implementing procedures to permit the partial reorganization of school districts; broadening opportunities for sharing among neighbouring school districts and increasing support for projects involving interactive telecommunications.

It can be argued that a centralized district administrative structure has less flexibility when dealing with diversity and less overall legitimacy in the community (Carnoy, 1988). Centralized administration may indirectly reduce school effectiveness. Therefore, the argument can be advanced that finding a balance between centralization-decentralization by district administrators can yield a high pay-off through reducing management costs or increasing school effectiveness, or both. Although difficult to assess, it can be concluded that the cost-effective balance of school district administration is directly affected by the extent of district centralization-decentralization. Jewel (1989) argues that smaller is better when one takes into consideration such factors as costs and educational results.

Advantages deriving from small rural schools and districts in Iowa were emphasized in a Study which concluded that a combination of small size, local support and overall efficiency allow these educational units to outperform urban schools and districts which are much larger in size, lack local support and in certain areas are deficient and inefficient (Jess, 1988). Admittedly, there are some limitations to small rural districts, but the usual political remedy to overcome these difficulties -- restructuring -- should be held suspect as a means of obtaining system efficiency. Here, the term decentralization is interpreted as the empowering of individuals with respect and value so that they are more than "heard" -- they become shaping forces.

The importance of educational decentralization cannot be overstated and the fact that "smaller is better" offers the idea that people seem to learn, to change and to grow in situations over which they feel they have some control, some personal influence and some efficacy (Berlin and Cienkus, 1989). Overall, small school districts with small class sizes tend to be more efficient and much more beneficial for children of low socio-economic status, suggesting that the issue of size should be determined by the needs of the students rather than the needs of the system.

Kidd (1986) contends that consolidated district superiority may be exaggerated. With proper planning and innovation, small schools can effectively share human, material and financial resources. Discussing the idea that administrative goals and student equity are not simultaneously attainable, Brown (1990) states that this may only be true when the administrative structure of school districts is centralized. The situation manifests itself in the inability of principals to acquire adequate resources from a central office forcing these administrators to resort to political tactics not always conducive to effective system management. It is generally concluded that there is a problem of efficiency in these settings -- insufficient or wrong resources turn into a problem of equity where students gain or lose depending on the lobby power of principals.

Supporting these findings and at the same time suggesting caution in assuming that "bigger is better", Berlin, Cienkus and Jensen (1989) argue that smaller districts are superior to large consolidated districts relative to cost efficiency, curriculum development and the nature of instruction. Centralization tendencies resulting in district consolidation make parents feel distant from schools and powerless to effect policy. Usually when people speak of district size, they are referring to numbers of students, but there are some obvious problems associated with large geographic size too. Findings generally show that smaller is likely to be better in most areas of school functioning -- a strong argument for retention of small districts through educational decentralization. These authors hasten to point out that political and economic influences will probably prevent district change based only on size considerations. The issue of size is important, but only as the size of anything affects relationships!

## Financial Implications of District Boundaries

From an administrative perspective, it is not easy to assess whether a district's administrative structure has the "right" or cost effective balance. Almost every educational system, according to Carnoy (1988) -- whether centralized or decentralized -- can make the case that its actual degree of centralization or the percent of budget spent on administration is appropriate to make the system work.

Any changes to existing educational district boundaries will have significant financial implications for Government in particular and local district management in general. To assume that consolidation will automatically result in substantial savings is, for the most part, a defiance of reality. Operating costs will naturally be high for very large districts due to a tendency for administrative costs to increase dramatically in such settings.

One must recognize that expanded boundaries could make an already geographically and financially challenging situation even more complicated and unmanageable in many instances. Yet, collapsed boundaries in the absence of new legislative or inter-denominational arrangements in Newfoundland might not provide sufficient district student populations to justify the division. Thus, present boundaries, although quite geographically and culturally expansive in many areas, might be operationally compressed through improvements in departmental support, inter-denominational co-operation, and better utilization of modern technology.

The question of financial viability of school boards has attracted much discussion in recent years. However, expansion of boundaries will not succeed in addressing the much larger problem of serious "under-funding". Consolidation offers little assistance when, at the moment, there are not enough financial resources being directed towards primary and secondary education to allow boards to effectively carry out their mandate. Consequently, the only real financial savings afforded Government through consolidation is the eradication of salary unit costs and office costs associated with one Board office under a merger. This saving will frequently be offset by increased travel costs for a new consolidated board along with additional costs incurred through enlarging/upgrading of central office facilities. This hardly constitutes real savings! Therefore, although per pupil grants and Specialist grants might increase while also allowing a previously financially disadvantaged area to now share in the school tax allocation of another area, the potential of increased bus transportation costs, maintenance costs and central office staff travel costs combine to make this route less than attractive in most instances (Treslan, 1988a).

It is interesting to note that in a study of Illinois schools evidence was provided which suggests that both small and large school districts incur higher per pupil costs than systems in the middle enrolment range. In terms of school size, it was concluded that the schools which seemed most able to take maximum advantage of so-called "economies of scale" were, at the elementary level, schools with 300 - 700 pupils and, at the high school level, those with 700 - 1,800 pupils. Again, these facts seem to favour educational decentralization at the local district level by demonstrating a relationship between measurable small school size and economies of scale.

Reorganization of school districts, frequently resulting in consolidation of non-viable districts into larger administrative units, is an extremely complex undertaking. Among American States which formerly had a large number of districts the experience of Pennsylvania is particularly instructive. Consolidation reduced the number of Pennsylvania school districts from 2,500 in 1964 to 501 since 1985. There has been a significant saving attached to this reorganization as new districts have been able to take advantage of economies of scale.

Any attempt to reorganize school districts must take into consideration a number of financial factors in order to justify the need for consolidation or even decentralization. In a survey of American States, considerable variation was found to exist in the format adopted for the basic formula of school finance in these situations. These included funding equalizers, two-tiered systems, resource equalizers and even full State funding. The funding option selected is based on a number of special circumstances pertaining to the reorganization situation: density/sparsity or small schools, declining enrolment or growth, assistance per capital outlay and transportation, assistance for special education populations and compliance with minimum constitutional and statutory requirements.

One of the most comprehensive reports in the area of educational finance was commissioned by the Government of Newfoundland (Roebothan, 1989b). Addressing the changing context of education and the current financial status of school boards, this Report reviewed the financing of elementary and secondary education in Newfoundland to seek ways to make the system more equitable. According to that Report, a major difficulty confronting many Provincial Governments is that of "generating a funding system that is sensitive to student needs, local costs, and local ability to pay" (p. 5). For school district management in general and district reorganization in particular, these funding considerations become critical.

There are at least six principles commonly recognized as the standards against which educational finance plans ought to be assessed. It would seem reasonable to conclude that these principles translate as well into measures of school district viability. These principles include:

1. Every student ... should have access to quality educational programmes and services that

reasonably respond to his or her individual needs ....

2. Every school board ... should have access to sufficient revenues to provide quality educational programmes and services that meet the needs of its students.
3. The plan of financial support should ensure reasonable equity for all tax payers.
4. ... the financing plan should provide maximum opportunity and encouragement for the development and exercise of local autonomy and leadership in education.
5. The financial provisions ... should encourage sound and efficient organization, administration, and operation of local ... schools.
6. The financing plan should emphasize continuous evaluation, long-range planning and overall accountability for the expenditure of public funds (Roebothan, 1989b, 29, 30).

In other words, viable and effective organization of school districts should demonstrate the hallmarks of excellence depicted in these principles through the practices of equity, autonomy, efficiency and adequacy.

## THEME 2: MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL DISTRICT ALTERATION

Based on a review of the literature, it can be concluded that the ideal operating size of a school district is simply that -- "an ideal": a rather abstract idea that helps to guide the thinking of individuals and groups in their quest for reality. Serving as a goal towards which one strives, an ideal type must be causally adequate and logically consistent in order to form the framework of human action. In this sense then, the ideal operating size of any school district is somewhat relative, depending on a number of factors including geography, location, population, financial circumstances and the tradition associated with any particular area (Galgay, 1987). There are obviously a number of important variables to be considered when ascertaining whether or not the viability of a school district is affected by district size. These include goals (that is having the necessary human, financial and physical resources to accomplish goals), human resources, financial resources, support staff, capital expansion, educational leadership, and geography -- all of which are strongly impacted on by the size of a school district (Whelan, 1987).

Alteration of school district boundaries is usually expensive in financial terms. Yet, it affords an opportunity to usher in adjustments to a status quo difficult to justify, resulting in an opportunity to create new educational districts offering improved learning opportunities for students, better working conditions for teachers and administrators, and increased community involvement. At worst, it can lead to divided communities disagreeing over non-educational issues -- the name of the new district, the location of the school board office and removal of an accepted status quo -- creating school-community alienation (Treslan, 1988a). Effective management of school district alteration depends entirely on effective planning demonstrated through educational leadership.

### Need for District Restructuring

To facilitate the change process associated with boundary alterations, restructuring efforts should initially result in the creation of a multiconstituent team that participates in the following restructuring changes: creates vision; establishes goals, priorities and strategies; determines resources and obstacles; anticipates policy conflicts; prepares for and monitors implementation, and institutionalizes change. After all, the first task in district alteration is to identify key dimension of the structure of instruction that affect pedagogical practice and student learning. The next step involves the consideration of experience and available research to serve as starting places for structural change. Finally, an understanding of the integration of forces within districts can facilitate change on various levels. Why involve people in the process? Simply because people who live and work in complex organizations need to be thoroughly involved in their own improvement efforts to assure significant and enduring change.

Perhaps the question should be posed: "What is restructuring?" To restructure means to preserve and build upon what has been successful in educating children and to rethink and redesign those aspects of the enterprise that are ineffective or inefficient. Specific areas to review include mission and goals; organization; management; curriculum; instruction; roles; responsibilities and regulation, external involvement and finances. Any restructuring process involving district alteration needs to address whether or not assumptions about education are being challenged and how to best solve resultant conflicts (Klauke, 1989).

Should district reorganization be necessary, it is important to keep in mind that planning, commitment and involvement of those affected by the reorganization are key ingredients to the success of the undertaking. Educators must keep in mind that the elements of a successful reorganization effort include strong and effective leadership by administrators; input from parents, citizens and community leaders; involvement of teachers and other school staff; consideration of objective data, and a willingness on all sides to listen and cooperate (Tremain, 1984).

A survey of parental attitudes toward various aspects of the educational programme in one Newfoundland rural school district showed that parents do hold very strong views concerning the education offered their children. Definite views were expressed concerning the role of non-traditional curricula in course offerings to their children; there was general satisfaction with the job teachers were doing, and above all there was a strong feeling that students should be able to attend school in their own community; that is, bussing was severely frowned on. This point should be closely adhered to in any district reorganization plan, since consolidation almost always involves increased bussing for students (Wayne, 1974).

School officials would be well advised to become familiar with the networks of information, influence and power in the communities served by their school districts. This is essential when it becomes necessary to mobilize community support regarding any alteration to school districts. The message here is that those who contemplate boundary change must be knowledgeable in district politics to ensure that adequate communication flow precedes any attempt to modify existing district boundaries (Spuck and Shipman, 1989).

Caution must also be exercised to prevent district consolidation simply because district enrolments are small or declining. Granted, it may be difficult for many school districts to consolidate and maintain existing boundaries, but the determining factor in consolidation should be the quality of the programmes offered, not simply district size (Rogers, 1986). Too, when examining the possibility of district alteration, decision makers should capitalize on the strengths that are present in small school districts. For example, small school systems have a positive influence on student achievement, and there is greater interaction, communication and individual attention afforded students and teachers in these small systems. Therefore, rather than merely eliminate these educational units, greater attention should be placed on increased funding for education rather than encouraging consolidation. Again, it must be borne in mind that consolidation of school districts must be a positive and constructive move for the students and citizens of the districts concerned, and the reorganization process itself must be effective, serving to minimize distrust and disharmony among all concerned (Canter, 1986).

School enrolment and programme needs change inexorably over time. Consequently, no redistricting solution is likely to be permanent. New attendance boundaries, no matter how well planned and precise, will have a limited life span. To assist in arriving at the most effective reorganization plan, the following factors must be considered: (1) Will there be enough time to make necessary changes to facilities? (2) Can transportation schedules be redesigned on time? (3) Racial balance? [not a factor in Newfoundland] (4) Resource equity? (5) Programme impact? (6) Public impact? and (7) Financial impact? Only after these factors have been considered can one embark on the final step -- developing the district reorganization plan (Hyland, 1989). Community participation is essential, but in the end school boards must decide whether or not to proceed with reorganization. The locus of educational planning has moved from being predominantly provincial to one which the province shares with local jurisdictions. In this sense, boundary alteration should not be enforced by Government without first seeking input from local school districts so affected and this includes parental input (Worth, 1987).

## Potential Factors Determining District Size

**Quality of educational services.** In a comparative study of the relationship between school district size and selected indicators of educational quality, it was discovered that size of district was in fact a very poor indicator of the quality of educational services offered. There was no significant difference between small and large districts with respect to the cost of educating a student; no significant difference attributable to size as it relates to the percentage of students in need of additional help in mathematics, reading and writing; average daily attendance by students was not impacted on by district size, and small or large districts had no effect on student performance on State exam mean scores and persistence rates (Melnick, 1986). This same view was advanced some six years earlier when it was concluded after an exhaustive review of district consolidation research that not a single study controlling for I.Q. and socio-economic effect recorded a consistent, positive correlation between district size and student achievement. In fact, it was also concluded that consolidation is not necessarily beneficial to the taxpayer or the administrator (O'Neil and Beckner, 1980).

Despite these conclusions of supposed immunity to district size, there is some evidence to suggest that the quality of educational services is affected by district size. For instance, counselling services play a critical role in the effective functioning of any school district. It is considered essential that supervisors of guidance be able to plan and organize guidance programmes as well as conduct in-service training for teacher-counsellors. It is believed that a programme of guidance services must be planned and organized in such a way as to meet the needs of all students in a given school district -- an undertaking obviously affected by district size (O'Brien, 1975).

In an assessment of the need for elementary school counsellors in a small rural British Columbia school district, it has been argued that small rural school districts must provide adequate elementary school counselling services to their students. These small districts seem to experience more difficulty in providing such services than larger urban and rural districts. Therefore, small districts may be at a disadvantage in meeting this type of student need (Emerson, 1984).

Discussing how the relationships between district size, effectiveness and economy appear to be curvilinear, Swanson (1988) describes three emerging trends capable of creating a technology of individualization and in the process radically altering a concept of optimal district size. First, a beginning has been made in the development of telecommunications networks and computerized instruction. Secondly, there has been development of computer based techniques for curriculum management. Thirdly, a theory of individualization has emerged to be used as an organizational framework for curriculum planning. Armed with this educational capability there is little need to focus on small and large district descriptors. By themselves, both terms contain advantages and disadvantages. The challenge is to provide stimulating learning environments with broad educational programmes characteristic of large school districts along with the supportive social structure characteristic of small school districts.

A study of the relationship between school district size and curriculum, measured by the presence/absence of various components of media services, has been carried out in the Province of Newfoundland. Findings revealed that there was no significant relationship between the presence/absence of media services and the size of the school district. However, a significant relationship did emerge between district size and the availability of locally and commercially produced curricular materials (Oldford, 1978).

**Student achievement.** Wilson (1985) studied the differences in elementary mathematics instruction and achievement among districts of varying size in the State of Washington and found more similarities than differences. What differences did exist were not attributable to district size. Manahan

(1988) offers the same caution regarding the impact of district size on student achievement. After examining student achievement on the Texas Assessment of Basic Skills Test, he concluded that scores were not affected by district enrolment. These findings notwithstanding, student achievement is generally considered to be another variable possibly impacted upon by the size of school districts. Coleman (1986), investigating the relationship between status variables and educational outcomes as measured by test scores, concluded that socio-economic predictors account for some but not all of the variance in student achievement between British Columbia school districts. Since resource predictors were negatively associated with achievement, suggesting that in districts where achievement is high a norm of frugality exists, the assumption could be made that small school districts are capable of producing high levels of student achievement despite the scarcity of educational resources, a finding also supported by Walberg (1989).

In another British Columbia Study of the relationship between student achievement and school district costs, it has been shown that high student achievement was matched with low district costs. An explanation of pupil teacher ratio was considered to be important here. One possible reason for this finding was that in those districts with high student achievement there tended to be more money spent on student productive activities than on reduction of the pupil teacher ratio. Such a finding augers well for the need to create larger districts and concomitantly shift spending priorities, a feat difficult to achieve in small districts (Coleman, Walsh and LaRocque, 1988).

In general, an inverse relationship tends to exist between school/school district size and school outcomes (Fowler, 1989). In a review of recent evidence of the positive effects of small-scale schooling on student achievement, Howley (1989) states that the historical emphasis placed on larger school size as a means of attaining cost-effectiveness and educational efficiency is dwindling. When attention is turned to outcome variables such as student achievement, there is confirmation of the positive effect of small-scale schooling. In fact, there is evidence to show that large district size has negatively affected student achievement in certain subject areas.

Using detailed cost breakdowns, an attempt has also been made to determine the extent to which student achievement can be predicted from educational costs and school district size. The findings indicated that costs of instruction were significantly related to student achievement (Amos, 1981). However, in an interesting reversal of these findings, Moreau (1987) concluded that there is no relationship between school district size and academic achievement among grade eight students in Maine. This research also pointed out an interesting relationship between district size and teacher qualifications, in that better qualified teachers tend to be associated with larger school systems.

These same findings were generally repeated in a study of the relationship between school district size, student achievement and high school offerings in Connecticut. In that Study, no significant difference was detected between small and large districts with respect to the achievement of students as measured by tests of mastery at both the grade four and grade nine levels. Large urban high schools were also found to offer more advanced course offering choices than small rural high schools (Melnick, 1987). Similar findings were uncovered by Kennedy (1989) in a study of Arkansas school districts.

In most cases the relationship, if any, between district size and student performance has been found to be slight. This leads to the conclusion that consolidation of small school districts into larger districts will not necessarily reduce expenditures per student, increase standardized test scores or reduce drop out rates. About the only advantage derived from consolidation appears to be reduced administrative costs in improving public education (Manahan, 1989).

**Educational personnel**. Webb and Metha (1983) studied the relationship between school district size and measures of educational quality such as the training and experience of teachers, teacher turn over, and breadth and depth of program offerings. They concluded that larger school districts had definite advantages. Shedding light on the unique recruitment and retention problems faced by rural and small school districts, Miller and Sidebottom (1985) also support the move towards creation of larger school districts.

Regarding the possible impact of district size on staff personnel, Lewis and Edington (1983) investigated the relationship between district size and teacher aspirations, career patterns and residential preferences in New Mexico. Findings indicated that teachers in small school districts generally preferred to remain in their districts for extended periods of time -- suggesting teacher contentment with small district settings. Opportunities were seen for these teachers to develop positive and lasting ties to communities in these small districts. This finding should be given careful consideration in light of the fact that Gardener (1986) discovered that teachers in small school districts performed considerably more instructional and non-instructional duties than teachers in large districts.

Significant differences in the certification records of science teachers in Idaho and the size of the districts in which they were employed have also been detected. Generally, teachers in large districts were more specialized, that is there was a higher frequency of a major completed in the subject taught than for teachers in small districts who generally had neither a major or minor in the subject taught. Too, teachers in small districts had significantly more subject preparations than their colleagues in large districts (Heikkinen, 1987).

**Cost effectiveness**. Changes to existing educational district boundaries obligates decision makers to realize that even though there is no "absolute" optimum size for school districts, this does not mean that the size or scale of a district is unrelated to the economic efficiency with which it produces educational services. The principles of economies of scale operating in most economic enterprises also apply to education. The size of a school district does affect the economic efficiency with which it produces educational services. That is to say that the same level of educational output will incur cost differences depending on the enrolment of the school district. It might therefore be argued that the average cost per student will decline (economies) as the size of the system increases until at some point (optimum size) the student cost begins to rise again (dis-economies). Determining that critical turning point when dealing with district geography is a difficult task, and to argue that "bigger is better" could be overly simplistic to the point of naivete. However, Coleman and LaRocque (1984) state that teacher salary costs per pupil and mean school size combined with pupil-teacher ratio are the primary predictors of operating costs in every school district. This fact emphasises the necessity of achieving economies of scale in district operation.

Quite naturally, the dis-economies associated with small districts relate to the fact that minimum teacher and other resources might not be fully utilized at low enrolments. These resources, representing minimum "fixed capital" requirements, are necessary to provide a basic quality of educational offerings. At very low levels or enrolment, providing the same quality of education and services as in larger districts requires extra funds. Small schools operate with lower pupil/teacher ratios than larger schools in order to provide needed programmes and services. Low pupil/teacher ratios result in higher costs per pupil for instructional salaries. At the school district level, the same principles apply when specialized staff are provided.

Costs can also be high for very large districts. Here the trend is for administrative costs in particular to increase dramatically. When one takes into consideration current government regulations regarding district funding and the added factor of geography, any enlargement of district boundaries has the potential to eliminate any anticipated savings due to increased enrolment. In other words, to arbitrarily advocate wholesale consolidation as a means of cost-saving cannot be justified. The question that must inevitably be addressed is simply "What is meant by 'dollars saved' in consolidation?" (Treslan, 1988a).

Centralization efforts in education therefore do not necessarily translate into financial savings. Small school districts can operate with greater efficiency than otherwise larger districts (Butler, 1985).

On the other hand, the exact reverse might be argued. Larger districts are more cost effective simply because as district size increases there is a tendency to invest more in teacher aides and less in licensed teachers. Too, larger districts tend to save on the expenses associated with supplies and professional development activities by relying on the district's general fund to cover those types of opportunity costs and other cost efficient management activities (Fitzgerald and Hunt, 1985). Efficient operation of school systems derives in part from their specialized instructional staff and support personnel. This in turn is related to student enrolment, and Riew (1986) concludes that from the individual school perspective, every effort should be made to keep enrolment losses to a minimum by entertaining certain school reorganization such as changes in grade levels among schools and even school consolidation. Given that these changes, especially those involving school phase-out, may adversely affect some members of the community, decisions must be made because the cost of inaction is potentially greater.

Inevitably the issue of efficiency and effectiveness serves to guide decisions involving school district operation. Occasionally the emphasis on efficiency over shadows what must also be a major reason for district consolidation, namely, effectiveness of system functioning. In common usage, efficiency means being able to perform a task economically. In particular, the concept implies a dependency on control to reduce waste, especially financial waste. The message alluded to is "less is more", that is in dealing with district efficiency, it is better to control district per-pupil expenditure than to control student achievement on socio-economic variables. However, if this line of thought is pursued to its logical conclusion, one can quickly lose sight of the meaning of the word effectiveness (Howley, 1989).

## THEME 3: MODELS OF SCHOOL DISTRICT ALTERATION

### Consolidation

School district consolidation has become one of the most popular educational policies to be implemented in the last number of years throughout North America. Its proponents argue that consolidation offers many advantages to small school districts, particularly those in rural areas. While there is little research to conclusively support these claims, the general consensus is that consolidation has contributed to recent educational progress.

Major arguments for school district consolidation are many and varied. Larger school districts offer a wider range of student programmes and services than small districts. The scope of district consultative services to meet individual needs of teachers is more easily extended in large districts. These settings also make possible the efficient use of economic resources. Fuller utilization can be made of expensive facilities and teaching resources, and savings can result from bulk purchasing and combined transportation costs.

Arguments are also advanced concerning the ability of consolidation to bring about greater equality of educational opportunity for students. Differences tolerated among independent smaller districts become unacceptable in a consolidated district, since the tendency of a new district is to build up services rather than to downgrade educational services. The literature suggests that there is a positive relationship between increased school district size and factors such as student achievement, educational costs, breadth of educational programmes, extra-curricular activities, special education programmes, availability of professional services for teachers and school facilities.

However, the negative side of school district consolidation must also be considered. This Paper has already discussed evidence which suggests that "bigger is not necessarily better". Many small school districts offer high quality education for students and excellent working environments for educators. Consolidation can also result in loss of local control over education. It could also result in the domination of the reorganized district by one segment of that district -- perhaps the most populated or politically powerful portion.

Several studies indicate that consolidation results in more bussing of students, which parents do not approve of. Too, larger districts require central office staff to have contact with more teachers and more schools distributed over wider geographical areas. Therefore, travelling time may be substantially increased, lowering the level of services provided to individual teachers. A further disadvantage of consolidation rests in the fact that a reduction in the number of districts does not automatically result in better education. Without additional resources, the consolidation of small, poor, inefficient districts may result in larger, poor, inefficient districts (Roebothan, 1987a). From the foregoing any attempt to alter district boundaries resulting in reorganization of school districts should take into consideration various alternative models of district operation which might be used to achieve the effectiveness and efficiency desired. School district reorganization involves many individuals and groups directly and indirectly associated with district schools. Whenever consolidation is entertained, there is usually a high degree of organizational trauma associated when change is imposed from outside. The various parties in the decision making process tend to become caught in their own "framing" events, resulting in frame ambiguity and frame conflict. Organizational frames establish rules and expectancies ultimately affecting the decision making process is a positive or negative way. Due attention should be paid to the presence of these frames in order to minimize conflict normally associated with school consolidation. In fact, as Sybouts and Bartling (1988) suggest, local control over this type of district reorganization is an imperative and the question of whether or not to consolidate can only be resolved with a high level of local district involvement which is helpful in reducing trauma produced conflict. Smith and DeYoung (1988) state that the key to the school district size debate may well be educational control rather than educational quality.

Bragg and Schladweiler (1989) describe the efforts of the State of Minnesota to reorganize their educational system into large consolidated educational districts. The change was considered absolutely necessary due to the problems being experienced with small rural districts -- declining enrolment, geographic location, tax base, staff experience, limited staff development opportunities and lack of direction in curriculum coordination. The guidelines governing formation of these consolidated districts had to include at least one of the following components: (1) at least five small districts; (2) at least four districts with a total enrolment of at least 5,000 students; or (3) at least four districts with a total area of at least 2,000 sq. miles. The purpose for creating the larger more viable districts included: (1) provision for coordination of special education programmes; (2) provision and coordination of research, planning and development functions; and (3) coordination and provision of methods to meet pupils' needs for health, library and counselling services.

Offering timely advice to decision makers contemplating school district consolidation, Woodward (1986) cautions that unplanned consolidation of districts in New York State has always resulted in negative public reaction simply because consolidation was perceived as breaching the tenet of local control over education. It should be borne in mind by all concerned that reorganization is a highly political activity in which numerous groups become involved. He notes that in recent years reorganization efforts have slowed considerably as concerned school districts want assurances that they will not lose local control and the opportunity to be directly involved in their children's education.

## Consolidation Alternatives

A number of forces favour consolidation as a means of overcoming perceived drawbacks to the efficiency and effectiveness of small educational districts generally. Certainly there are legitimate arguments for the need to entertain reorganization strategies in the face of strong centralization forces in society. However, due care and attention must be paid to entertaining consolidation as a viable option only in those situations where absolutely warranted. Other reorganization alternatives should be carefully considered as well. These alternatives include the regional service concept, educational district sharing, maintenance of the status quo with extra funding for smaller districts, the co-terminous educational district concept, as well as other approaches such as the federated district and partial reorganization.

**The Regional service concept**. In a number of Canadian Provinces and American States regional services have been provided to assist in the provision of educational programmes and services at the local district level. Operating mainly as regional extensions of a Department of Education, functions generally assigned have included instructional leadership, specialized educational programmes, and certain small district management and purchasing services. Recently, such units have acquired the label "service centres" reflecting a move away from control and regulatory functions towards increased leadership and service functions -- possibly control by another name! It might be argued that the regional centre could serve as a logical compromise between individual school districts too small to provide quality educational programmes and overly centralized systems which are cumbersome and unresponsive to local needs.

Serving as another alternative to physical alteration to district boundaries, Hill (1984) described how area service agencies have been structured to enhance educational services while preserving local school districts in North Dakota. This undertaking requires cooperation between small school districts -- certain functions carried out by the superintendent would now be assigned to an area service agency; certain services paid for by local districts would also be paid for by an area service agency. The key to this approach in achieving viable school districts without fear of assimilation through consolidation lies in the willingness of the State Government to initiate innovative approaches in the area of educational management.

Provided that this concept is not merely an additional bureaucratic level of government control over existing districts, there are several strengths to this administrative arrangement. These include provision of certain services, facilities and equipment common to all districts but presently under-utilized or uneconomically provided by individual districts; providing a logical focus for co-operative efforts among local school district in a certain region; retention of local school boards with local control and involvement; and the performance of monitoring roles for the Department of Education. [Though cited as a benefit, the last point can very likely become a handicap if not carefully implemented].

This alternative also possesses certain weaknesses which must be acknowledged. For this particular administrative arrangement, the following apply: possible controversy regarding which specialized services can best be provided at the regional or local level, and who should provide them; nagging questions associated with structure and financing; creation of additional bureaucracy with more centralized decision-making; too large a geographic area for regional consultants to effectively cover; and potential controversy concerning funding fairness due to the variety of educational practices throughout the Province. At best, this concept could simply create an additional government presence superimposed at the local level -- costly and possibly counter-productive.

**Educational district sharing**. Throughout Canada, and particularly in Newfoundland, there exists the potential for increased local educational district sharing. Certainly, increased co-operation between smaller districts of one faith or districts of different faiths is a viable alternative to consolidation. In some provinces, the literature cites audio-visual centres established through the cooperation of several small districts and the costs pro-rated among these districts. In other areas, small districts contract with larger ones to provide services such as curriculum consultants or bussing -- services which might be difficult for a small district to provide on its own. The following benefits can be derived therefrom: provision of additional educational programmes, services and facilities without losing the advantages of local interest and local control provided by local school boards; costs of shared services often financed by extra funding from Government, and the fact that this arrangement is already quite familiar to educators in this Province.

Suggested disadvantages of the shared services option include: the requirement of a high level of vision and commitment on the part of all concerned with co-operative agreements; difficulty in working out financial arrangements; problems encountered in explaining and selling such a plan to community, staff and students; problems associated with implementation of such a plan; the issue of compromise versus abandonment of certain local religious traditions; necessity of provincial consultation and agreements when sharing involves boards of different denominations; and the substantially increased travel time of teachers and consultants.

From an American perspective, Monk and Haller (1986) state that interdistrict sharing can be considered one of the most viable alternatives to consolidation. This approach involves partial reorganization where there is voluntary sharing of resources and new instructional technologies between districts.

Discussing the efforts of two small school districts in rural Illinois that organized a joint programme with a nearby larger school system, Alexander and Rogers (1988) suggest that this type of sharing arrangement has proved most satisfactory. It allows for sharing of staff development, social work, speech therapy, vocational education, cooperative purchasing, special education, counselling services and gifted programmes. They note however, that working together requires all school districts concerned to surrender some control over their individual students and programmes. This may not come easily to some school boards.

**Status quo, with extra funding for smaller districts.** A majority of small school districts naturally argue in favour of retention of the status quo with extra funding for smaller districts in particular and all districts in general. The current financial plight of school boards across this Country is acknowledged in the literature. The arguments for retaining the status quo are obvious. These include the opportunity for local communities to continue their interest in and control of education in each area of the Province; availability of highly qualified teachers to all schools and districts, not just those in urban areas; the possibility for all small districts to provide a quality education for students, and the reality that educators and communities alike are generally happy with this present arrangement.

Disadvantages of this management approach, given the limitations on government funding, translate into reduced programme offerings and instructional services in many areas; problems in determining which districts qualify for small district support and the level of differential support that may be provided for such districts, and justifying the continuation of small districts in the face of hardships currently being experienced.

Retention of the status quo is only possible given a substantive infusion of Government funding to allow districts to upgrade their services to a reasonable and acceptable level. Where districts can be combined, there will be no immediate savings in dollars -- merely the anticipation of improved education for children. Government and public alike must face this fact. To argue differently is to deny a basic reality -- that quality education offered through streamlined districts now and in the future necessitates considerable educational expenditure. Any alteration of the status quo must therefore carry with it that expectation of Government.

**The co-terminous educational district concept.** In some areas of North America, public educational districts and Roman Catholic districts co-exist and, in the process, share co-terminous boundaries. Although each district operates with its own school board, superintendent, central office co-ordinators and district schools, the possibility for shared services is intensified. Consequently, overlapping of services exists only to the extent that each district shares the same geographic area.

There would be two school boards, two superintendents, two religious education co-ordinators -- two fully functioning school districts. Each group would be responsible for administering its own school. This administrative arrangement would minimize the extensive travel involved in servicing schools and there could be sharing of all other co-ordinators. Opportunities would exist for increased local shared service arrangements through inter-denominational cooperation. While capitalizing on many of the strengths already identified with the regional service concept and educational district sharing, this organizational arrangement has the added advantage of minimizing an emphasis on student enrolment as a sole determiner of district viability and, instead, emphasizing the geographic area to be administered (Treslan, 1988a).

**Other approaches**. Sederberg (1988) describes the concept of a federated district as a co-operative organizational alternative for low enrolment rural school districts facing future enrolment decline and/or fiscal exigency. This alternative is feasible for adjacent school districts serving small to medium size geographical areas. Salient characteristics of this approach include: local elementary attendance units, small regional high schools, a governing assembly with an executive committee from existing school boards and a multiple district administrative team. It is argued that adoption of an adequate federated district organizational structure would provide a larger framework for cooperation in planning and implementation of instruction, student support, plant facility, transportation, administration and other services.

Rincones (1988) explores alternatives to consolidation, which he claims has not met the problems of finance, staff, facilities and curriculum. He argues for partial reorganization as a middle-of-the-road response to decreasing enrolments and tight budgets. Three types of partial reorganization include: (1) central high school districts (when two or more school districts combine high school programs only); (2) cluster districts (providing services shared by separate neighbouring school districts, allowing access by students of different schools), and (3) exchange of students for tuition (sending students to neighbouring school districts for instruction).

## III. SUMMARY

This Background Paper has focused on the factors generally considered to be important in establishing effective school districts. A summary of those factors critical to the determination of effective school district boundaries in Newfoundland is presented here, based on (1) analysis of conclusions and recommendations reached in recent Newfoundland school district boundaries; (2) examination of the rationale and structure for delivery of Health Care and Social Services in Newfoundland, and (3) review of literature and research associated with determination of school district boundaries. The first three questions posed in the Statement of the Problem are addressed in respective sequence, and the critical factors deriving therefrom for establishing viable Newfoundland school districts are phrased in the form of proposals for the immediate attention of this Royal Commission of Enquiry into the Delivery of Programmes and Services in Primary, Elementary, Secondary Education.

**Question 1: What major conclusions and recommendations have been reached in recent school district boundary studies conducted in Newfoundland?**

**a. What potential impact might these conclusions have on the Newfoundland denominational education system?**

The three Denominational Education Councils recognize the need to review district boundaries and by logical extension, district size. Each Denominational Council Boundary Report places an emphasis on increased inter-denominational sharing where possible, with the Integrated Task Force placing major emphasis on viable district size not to fall below 1,500 students. Advancement of the 'fully integrated school board' concept by the Integrated Task Force is advocated as a viable form of inter-denominational cooperation for administration of school districts. The Roman Catholic District Boundaries Report advances the concept of 'co-terminous district boundaries' within newly formed educational regions. This concept draws on the strengths of the regional service and educational district sharing. Moreover, the Roman Catholic District Boundaries Report advocates operationalization of Local School Committees within Newfoundland school districts.

The Pentecostal Boundary Report demonstrates both openness and caution towards cooperation with other denominational boards/districts. This is particularly evident in the argument for creation of co-terminous district boundaries with Integrated and Roman Catholic districts. That particular Boundary Report advances the notion of organizing Provincial Education along two lines --

philosophical/administrative and professional services. Interestingly, both the Roman Catholic and Pentecostal Education Council Reaction Reports focus on short-term needs of existing school districts.

Any alteration of school district boundaries will impact on existing district constitutions. To be viable, these new districts must develop reorganized constitutions to address the human, financial and physical resources necessary to accomplish educational goals. Attention should be paid as well to educational leadership, local contact and geography over which educational services must now be delivered.

Proposals

1. The long-range innovative recommendations contained in the three Denominational Education Council Boundary Reports relative to increasing the size of Newfoundland school districts within educational regions should be closely examined and acted upon immediately.
2. Inter-denominational sharing should be encouraged to offset any disadvantages associated with increased district size within a reorganized denominational structure.
3. Whereas 1,500 students might easily be rationalized in some areas of the Province as an ideal district size, other more critical factors should be given first priority: geography; programme delivery; personnel, and finances.
4. Serious consideration should be given to dividing the Province into as many as 14 educational regions for the purpose of delivering educational services -- 3 in Labrador and 11 in Newfoundland. District size (enrolment and geography) would be determined by a number of factors/forces unique to each educational region.
5. The concept of a 'fully integrated school board' should be explored but only when the security of a religious minority is fully protected. [This concept will have significant import for the administration and management of larger school districts envisaged under reorganization of the denominational education system]
6. The concept of 'co-terminous district boundaries' within educational regions should be explored in the context of a reorganized denominational district structure. [This concept will have significant import for the administration and management of larger school districts envisaged under reorganization of the denominational education system]
7. Regardless of the size of Newfoundland school districts, Local Education Committees are vital to effective and efficient school district administration. As school districts increase in size, these demand input mechanisms become essential.
8. The receptiveness of the three Denominational Education Council Boundary Reports to inter-denominational cooperation should be closely adhered to in the reorganization of Newfoundland school districts. In particular, newly created school districts emerging as part of the revamped denominational system should rely on the input of different faiths in the delivery of educational services.
9. Inasmuch as the creation of new and larger, more viable school districts will alter existing district operating procedure, consideration should be given to establishing district constitution committees to manage changes incurred by school districts undergoing reorganization.

**Question 2: What is the rationale underlying the delivery of Health Care and Social Services in Newfoundland?**

Delivery of health care services, social services and educational services in Newfoundland utilize district structures determined by many of the same factors. These include geography, population served, physical access (such as roads) and available resources (personnel and others).

Proposals.

1. Determination of a future delivery structure for Newfoundland education should take into consideration the formation of co-terminous boundaries with health care services and social services where possible. The rationale used to establish these regions should be studied in the creation of educational regions. Within these structures, maximum alignment of health care and social service districts with educational districts could assist in the streamlining of Government service costs.

**Question 3: According to related literature and research, what factors/principles/characteristics are typically considered in determining school district size?**

The goal of a viable school district is to achieve a blend of effective governance and effective administration in the delivery of educational services. To achieve this goal and to ensure equality of educational opportunity, districts must be an appropriate size to facilitate interaction between clients and decision makers. In fact, effective policy making and policy implementation interaction can only be achieved in relatively compact viable districts.

The decision to alter the size of a school district must be based on many factors, some of which include fiscal efficiency, school effectiveness and community identity. Some school districts by their very nature display factors contributing to district reorganization. These typically include low/decreasing enrolment, high per pupil expenditures, shared services with other districts and the close proximity of large districts to which students could be transferred/transported. However, school district reorganization inevitably involves decisions regarding the need to consolidate or otherwise centralize educational services.

The arguments for centralization (consolidation) are many and varied. They include the following: benefits to students, teachers, taxpayers and the Province; improved course offerings; improved student achievement levels, and reduction in teacher preparations. The arguments against centralization (consolidation) are equally persuasive: too much emphasis on improving educational opportunity; damage to the infrastructure of rural areas; failure to consider consolidation alternatives; consolidation decisions too complex to be generalized from; quality and efficiency of education rarely improved, and administrative goals and student equity can only be attained in non-consolidated situations. For the most part, small rural school districts can be quite successful given the appropriate operating ingredients. A combination of small size, local support and overall efficiency is considered to be their secret to success. People seem to learn, to change and to grow in these situations. It is also argued that these districts are superior to large school districts in terms of cost efficiency, curriculum development and the nature of instruction.

Changes to school district boundaries will have financial implications for local and provincial levels of government. Consolidation offers no real savings since this exercise usually involves increased travel costs, increased maintenance costs and increased bus transportation -- to name but a few cost factors. By the same token, the financial costs associated with maintaining small non-viable school districts is self evident. Consequently, to facilitate district reorganization when either consolidation or contraction is involved necessitates consideration of various financing formulae to assist in this regard.

To facilitate the change process associated with school district alteration, it is important for administrators to involve those so affected in the decision making process. Since restructuring resulting in changes to the size of school districts has implications for goals, organization, management, curricula, instruction, roles, responsibilities and finances, parental/community input and support become a vital part of the politics of boundary alteration. When consolidation is contemplated, the tendency to feel threatened by a loss of local district identity must countered.

Whereas literature and research is generally contradictory relative to identification of factors/forces determining district size, four general factors do emerge. Although the causal effect may be weak in some instances due to the effect of mediating forces, these factors include quality of educational services (encompassing guidance and curriculum), student achievement/performance, essential educational personnel (teaching and non-teaching) and cost effectiveness. In the case of this last factor, the argument advanced is that the size of the school district is related to the economic efficiency with which it produces educational services. Overall, achieving a balance between efficiency and effectiveness should assist in the determination of a viable district size.

Although examination of literature and research pertaining to effective school district size has failed to identify that precise point at which economies of scale give way to dis-economies of scale, the absence of an absolute optimum size for school districts does not mean that the size or scale of a district is unrelated to the economic efficiency with which it produces educational services. Quite clearly, the principles of economies of scale operating in most enterprises also operate in school districts -- balanced budgets, acceptable overhead costs, production efficiency and effectiveness, fixed capital, quality control, personnel requirements, to name but a few. The dis-economies of small districts are well known -- under utilization of resources representing fixed capital requirements; lower pupil-teacher ratios, and higher per pupil costs for instructional and staff salaries. Yet, the dis-economies of large districts cannot be overlooked -- higher administrative costs; upgraded and expanded facilities necessitating increased capital expenditure, and the tendency toward faculty/staff specialization.

Obviously the size of a district can directly or indirectly affect the economic efficiency of school district functioning in that the same level of educational output (student achievement) will incur cost differences depending on the size of the school district (enrolment, geography, etc.). It might be argued that the average cost per student will decline (economies) as the size of the system increases until at some point (optimum size) the student cost begins to rise again (dis-economies). Clearly, large and small districts have economies and dis-economies of scale associated with them, thereby negating any emphasis on either "bigger is better" or "smaller is better". Determinants of the actual economies vs dis-economies of scale balance point are therefore not directly/solely dependent on district size. Other more critical factors must be taken into consideration along with sound administrative judgement and practice.

Proposals.

1. The size of school districts should be such as to facilitate and maximize both the governance and administration of educational service delivery.
2. To ensure optimum client-system interaction, district size should reflect a substantial degree of compactness. However, compactness should not be solely determined by student population. Geography is a more crucial determinant of system compactness and viability.
3. Consolidation simply because "bigger is better" cannot be condoned. Rather, consolidation of non-viable districts into larger more viable administrative units is justified in Newfoundland simply because the status quo is becoming increasingly difficult to maintain and justify due to burgeoning operating costs, duplication and educational programme inequity.
4. The resultant size of Newfoundland school districts under reorganization must reflect consideration of fiscal efficiency, school effectiveness and retention of community identity.
5. Well-planned consolidation of educational services, resulting in larger and fewer school districts in most instances, can offset the disadvantages normally associated with typical consolidation efforts.
6. Achieving a balance between centralization-decentralization forces will impact directly on district size. Acceptable management costs and increased school effectiveness can serve as reliable indicators of this balance point.
7. The possibility of relatively small school districts (equal to or possibly smaller than some existing districts) within defined educational regions should be explored where conditions

warrant same. After all, the optimum size of a school district must ultimately be determined by the needs of students -- possibly necessitating small educational units in some instances.

8. An appropriate funding package must be made available to facilitate and encourage alteration of school district boundaries. Whether expansion or contraction is envisaged, reorganization costs money!

9. Within a regionalized education structure, the financial viability of any school district regardless of size should conform to the six principles advocated by Roebothan (1989). In this sense, district equity, autonomy, efficiency and adequacy become critical determinants of district size.

10. District size and related viability can directly affect goals, human resources, financial resources, support staff, capital expansion and educational leadership. Therefore, it should be borne in mind that the ideal operating size of a school district is relative -- depending on many factors/forces of which student enrolment is but one.

11. Available information regarding district reorganization emphasizes the debate between consolidation and non-consolidation. The advantages and disadvantages of centralization efforts resulting in the merger of small non-viable districts to create larger, more viable educational units have been identified. Given the intervening variables in determining the appropriate size of Newfoundland school districts, emphasis should be placed on consolidating existing school districts to form educational regions and allowing factors/forces in each region to determine the size of school districts therein. Consequently, there may well be considerable variation in the size of resulting districts, all of which have been borne out of consolidation -- not because "bigger is necessarily better" but because retention of "smallness" in the face of mounting evidence pointing to non-viability can no longer be justified.

12. Other consolidation alternatives can now become "within region" options for establishing school districts and should be adopted as means through which school district viability is attained. Regional service, educational district sharing and co-terminous educational district boundaries all become viable approaches to organizing school districts and educational services within the aforementioned educational regions of the Province. One alternative -- status quo, with extra funding -- will now become redundant in the context of a restructured denominational education system. The concept of a federated school district also holds promise for enhancing educational services in selected areas of this Province.

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## *PART VII*

# The Cost of Education

Over the years, public debate on the educational system in this Province has tended to focus on the premise that the deeply rooted denominational structure is inefficient, wasteful and contributes to an underachieving school system. At the very least, some argue, it is over-administered at the district level. In an attempt to define the problem, various attempts have been made to identify costs associated with the denominational system with estimates falling within a range of $5M to $100M.

It was not sufficient to simply identify those factors which could be attributed to duplication within the denominational system and cost them -- if indeed that could be completed with any degree of accuracy. The problem was to separate only those items which could be directly linked to the maintenance of a denominational structure. To accomplish this end, in chapter 20 Harold Press was asked to complete a comprehensive analysis of the costs associated with the denominational education system on three levels: school, school district, and province.

Chapter 20

# COSTS AND CONSEQUENCES:
## An Examination of the Potential for Consolidation within the Education System and the Associated Costs

Harold Press

## I. INTRODUCTION

A great deal of criticism has been showered upon the education system for various reasons in recent years. This attention has not been unique to this province, for that matter this country. Education reform has been on the forefront of the political agenda in many countries. For most, no longer is there scope for any increase in public expenditure on education and for many there is even a policy of retrenchment (OECD, 1984).

Increased demands on the public purse from other sources, coupled with a declining educational constituency emanating from rapidly shifting demographic conditions, have led to a decline in financial support. At the same time that financial support has been declining, schools have been challenged with increased demands on their time and resources. Teachers have been asked to assume a number of responsibilities formerly handled by the family, the community and government agencies without proper inservice training, adequate resources and little input in the decision process.

This province finds itself in a less than enviable position. On the one hand, it is suffering many of the same difficulties as many other jurisdiction - greater demands, large-scale demographic shifts, declining financial support, and increased accountability. But Newfoundland is also affected far more severely than most. For example, the province's exceptionally low fertility rate, which is expected to continue to decline, and out-migration will continue seriously to affect enrolments for some years (Press, 1990).

### Background

Problems facing our education system are also exacerbated by the presence of the denominational educational structure. Unique among Canadian provinces, the denominational system of education in Newfoundland - where a small number of Christian denominations have the exclusive right to operate all publicly funded schools - has long been criticized on the grounds that it is both discriminatory and costly. In addition, the exclusion of disenfranchised individuals, religious minorities or other concerned groups from active participation on school boards or decision-making at any level has been a central theme of human rights advocates. The issue is described succinctly in a brief to the Royal Commission by the Board of the Newfoundland and Labrador Human Rights Association (#655). It stated:

> *The system discriminates against students, teachers, parents, and candidates for school board elections who are not members of one of the designated Denominations. It discriminates against students and parents who are not members of one of the preferred groups by obliging them to attend a school which is contrary to their beliefs. It discriminates against parents who in conscience, do not believe in a union of church and state. It discriminates against teachers by*

> *essentially requiring them to be a member of one of the Denominations designated in the Schedule to the* Schools Act. *It further requires them to conform in even their personal life to the teachings of the faith of their school or else face possible dismissal, and all this without recourse to finding employment with an institution whose beliefs are compatible with their own. Finally, it discriminates against individuals who might wish to run for positions on school boards but cannot do so because their religious affiliations or non-affiliations do not accord with one of the enumerated Denominations. It does so in a manner which cannot objectively be called "fair" or "just".* (p. 9)

On the other hand, there are also those who severely criticize the system because they claim it is expensive, inefficient and over-administered. Critics point to the duplication of schools and school resources, the relative absence of large-scale sharing, an imbalance with respect to curriculum materials, overlapping bus routes, and poor achievement levels. All this despite a large per-capita expenditure on education in relation to other provinces. Some of this sentiment is summed up by Harris (1990):

> *The plain fact is this: in the name of an antiquated, inefficient, and cast-ridden education system run by the churches but paid for by the public, Newfoundland children are being given substandard educations at the same time as they are preparing for a workplace more fiercely competitive than any the world has yet seen.* (p. 3)

Defenders of the system point to the well-established partnership between church and state - one that has remained largely unchallenged for 115 years. Its legitimacy, proponents say, is therefore well established. They claim a public system would soon become a Godless institution without decent morals or any other human virtues, and devoid of Christian values. Some even go so far as to suggest that the presence of a public system would lead to increased crime, unemployment, promiscuity, illiteracy, delinquency, and alcoholism.[1]

Whatever their differences, however, all sides appear in agreement that a thorough accounting of the education system should be undertaken in order to discover what its exact cost is so that debate can move on to a higher plain, namely: "Are we prepared to pay for it?" Although House (1986) in the final report of the Royal commission on Employment and Unemployment did not address the sensitive issue of the denominational educational system head-on, the education background report did recommend a detailed investigation of its cost be undertaken. It concluded:

> *...such a study would be highly desirable. The denominational system of education, as it is currently structured, allows for much inefficiency and unnecessary duplication of services. The denominational councils, for example, cost money to operate for an uncertain return; and, in rural areas particularly, more schools are operated than are needed for the school population. Newfoundlanders should know the costs of their denominational educational system and efforts should be made to use our scarce financial resources better in delivering educational programmes.* (p. 145)

## Previous Estimates

Over the years, a number of attempts have been made to estimate the cost of the denominational education system. But it is difficult to compare individual estimates because, for various reasons, different assumptions and methodologies were used, little attention was paid to detail, and different years were compared.

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[1] A number of briefs received by the Royal Commission laid before it such strong sentiments about the maintenance of the denominational system and the establishment of public schools. Specific comments about public schools included: *"the students swear and take drugs", "teenage pregnancy, underage drinking and drug abuse are the norm",* and *"it is normal for teachers to have their feet upon the desk, smoking a cigarette, many times with a bad hang-over, and using curse words on the students where they didn't behave as they should, and at home practising common-law living."*

The Newfoundland Teachers' Association, in a 1986 brief to the provincial government entitled *Exploring New Pathways*", was first off the mark claiming the denominational educational system was

> *the most administratively inefficient and economically wasteful of any system in Canada ... The core of the problem is isolation by denomination. There is such a duplication of effort that we believe as much as one dollar in five is now used solely to support this isolation approach ... Consider that for 1985-86 the net education expenditure (current and capital) was $387,287,200. If we are correct, as much as $77,457,440 was spent during that school year to support isolated denominationalism.* (p. 19)

Later that same year, in a letter of response to the Newfoundland Teachers' Association (October 23, 1986), Loyola Hearn, the Minister of Education at the time, claimed these estimates were *"patently ridiculous"*. His methodology was founded on three assumptions: (1) a public system would still require 20 school boards, (2) there would be marginal savings relative to teachers' salaries, and (3) savings realized through the consolidation of schools would be offset to some degree by increased bussing costs. He concluded that the cost was more in the vicinity of $10.5m, and with the introduction of a number of cost efficiency measures and greater sharing, this could be reduced by $5m.

In his book, *The Vexed Question* (1988), McKim undertook the most comprehensive exploration of the cost of the denominational education system. He went furthest in attempting to define costs and intangible benefits, although he stopped short of measuring them within the framework of a comprehensive provincial financial analysis. In the end, he simply dismissed the exercise saying it was not possible with available information to measure the cost. He admitted:

> *I have not been able to provide that much needed estimate of the total cost of denominationalism. That job requires the resources of a Royal Commission, and until one is appointed...we will never know the full extent of the cost and even then, we will only know the extent of the cost that can be quantified.* (p.278)

Having said that, he went on to accept the Newfoundland Teachers' Association estimate of $77.5m as being *"not unreasonable"*. Categorizing the system as wasteful and inefficient, he pointed a finger clearly at the isolationism caused by the denominational education system.

One of the weakest empirical attempts to estimate the costs of the denominational system was completed by the St. John's Board of Trade in a brief to the Premier in November 1989. The Board accepted the findings and conclusions reached by the Newfoundland Teachers' Association based on the premise that 20 percent of all monies spent on education go to support the denominational system. They went on to estimate that the total cost of such duplication in 1989-90 was $130.7 million. These findings, however, were based on the shaky assumption that, over time, the relative cost of the denominational system as a proportion of the total cost would remain constant. While the actual cost may vary from one year to the next, consolidation within and co-operation between boards has lowered the proportion of the total cost. If indeed the Newfoundland Teachers' Association was correct in its assumption that, for the school year 1985-86, 20 percent of the total cost went to maintain the denominational system, it is inappropriate to conclude that the same rate would be appropriate four years later.

In a 1990 article entitled "Educational Duplication Proves Costly", Peter Fenwick estimated the cost and found it to be somewhere between $30 million and $40 million. However, it is unclear to what year he referred or what methodology he employed.

There is probably some truth in each of the attempts described above. However, in each case the research methods employed were less than adequate. The conclusions reached were frequently based on incomplete data, inappropriate definitions and assumptions, and lack of a sound methodology which could lead to the identification, measurement and analysis of all the constituent elements. It was not the intention of this writer to dispute or verify any of these estimates, they were presented merely to demonstrate the degree of variance in the findings among those who have attempted to negotiate a most difficult path.

## Methodology

### The Task

It was within the context of this social, economic and political environment that government foresaw the need for education reform and thus the creation of this Royal Commission. At a news conference given by the Premier and Minister of Education to announce its creation, the Premier concluded:

> *"Over the past 20 years [there have been] growing concerns related to the effectiveness and cost-efficiency of the Province's school system.... Government, therefore, feels that the time has come to undertake another comprehensive review of our delivery system to consider what structural changes may be necessary to reflect these new realities.*

Realizing that critical decisions related to the organization and structure of the educational system could not be made without due attention to cost, Government mandated the Royal Commission to determine what those costs are. The Commission thus decided that one of its first tasks would be to undertake a comprehensive cost study - one which would address not only the costs associated with the denominational education system but the costs associated with further consolidation also. The specific mandates, as expressed in its Terms of Reference, were to

#2 Examine the extent to which school districts and schools can be further consolidated and costs associated with such consolidation;

#4 Examine the extent of duplication resulting from the denominational system and costs associated with such duplication.

### Scope

Given its Terms of Reference, the Commission's task was to examine only those items which could be directly linked to (1) the maintenance of the denominational structure or to (2) inefficiencies resulting from duplication of effort. To accomplish this, a comprehensive analysis had to be completed at the school level, the central office level, and the provincial level. For each level, individual components had to be identified and justified, total costs (and in some cases per-unit costs) developed, and comparisons made against baseline data.

Given the magnitude of the problem under investigation, the study was intended only to be a snap-shot of the nature and extent of duplication and inefficiency for one period of time (1989-90). The limitations of the reliable data available, as well as time and resource constraints, would not allow for an analysis of the changing cost of the system over a period of time.

The investigation was also restricted to an analysis of expenditures. While a detailed analysis of revenue patterns would prove informative, 96 percent of revenue comes from direct grants (most of which are non-discretionary), and from local taxation and would not provide meaningful testimony about the real costs of the denominational system.

### Conceptual Framework

The lack of adequate methodologies for undertaking a cost analysis of the Newfoundland education system has resulted in a wide variance in findings, but there has also been a lack of reliable data. In the past, studies have been designed with a macro-level approach, not paying particular attention to regional variances, local conditions or individual need. Given these circumstances, it became clear at an early stage that a new methodology for costing various components of the education system would have to be developed and tested. To estimate the savings such a framework would have to identify those components of the system which are directly connected to the maintenance of the denominational system, measure them, determine their costs, and re-calculate the cost of the system without them.

This methodology is derived from *cost-analysis* research. Although the basic principles of cost-analysis have prevailed for centuries, the formal application of various techniques for calculating effectiveness is a recent phenomenon. Although it takes many forms - cost-benefit analysis, cost-outcome analysis, cost-effectiveness analysis, cost-feasibility analysis - it is really any analytical method that measures the advantages and disadvantages of alternative actions, where one factor is cost. Stated another way, and as applied by the Commission, it is a form of public investment decision-making which, through the selective identification and examination of costs, assesses the fiscal desirability of existing rights, structures or hierarchy of power. Cost-analysis emanates from a desire for rational decision-making. It does not suggest either what people should do or should want; it merely informs and illuminates the decision-making process. The intent of this study was to help the Commission understand the implications of the present school system and to assess the ramifications of changing it.[2]

Although there are a number of different methods of evaluating actions, cost-analysis information is generally displayed in monetary terms. Within this framework, evaluation is based on efficiency criteria, implying that resources should be allocated to their highest valued uses. However, cost alone may not be the most important consideration for decision-makers who place a high value on other, non-financial elements, such as their proprietary rights, and they may thus choose to maintain a more costly system instead of more efficient alternatives which could somehow curtail those rights. Therefore, measuring the costs of the denominational system could not be confined to a process of identifying specific components and determining their costs.

### Limitations

As with most studies of this nature, a number of limitations could not be controlled or compensated for, largely because of unavailability of data and the absence of prior research on several key elements. Another limitation was a lack of knowledge about specific components of the operation of the education system, such as the nature of busing routes, how some decisions are made within the system, and the roles and responsibilities of non-academic staff. In addition, the lack of a comprehensive knowledge about local political environments, particularly related to school consolidation, was a limiting factor.

Another limitation lay in the interpretation of certain key concepts, such as *cost*. While the concept of cost will be more explicitly defined later in this report, no attempt was made to deal with costs beyond those which could be measured: no acceptable way could be found to measure, for example, the cost of the volunteer effort provided by members of religious orders, the savings incurred through the use of certain church facilities, or the cost to disenfranchised individuals and groups of not having a direct voice in decision-making under the present system.

A further limitation was the inability to complete extensive primary research within time and budget allowed the Commission. Because of these constraints, the analysis was confined to one year (1989-90). Whether this particular year adequately represents the extent of duplication or inefficiency is not known. Decisions about school consolidation also had to be completed without the benefit of historical documentation and school level projections. On the capital side, for example, no attempt was made to examine the implications of long-term resource allocation based on denominational rather than provincial need. On the other hand, one can assume, with increased co-operation and sharing among boards over the last number of years, the percentage cost of the denominational system has been declining. As illustrated in Figure 1, it is unclear just where 1989-90 expenditures would fall on a cost curve over time.

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[2] See, for example, M. Thompson, *Benefit-cost Analysis for Program Evaluation*, 1980; N. Smith, and J. Smith, *Cost Analysis in Educational Evaluation*, (ROEP Paper and Report Series No. 100), 1984; V. Smith, "A Conceptual Overview of the Foundations of Benefit-Cost Analysis", in J.D. Bentkover et al. (eds), *Benefits Assessment: The state of the art*, 1986; and A. Schmid, *Benefit-cost Analysis: A political economy approach*, 1989.

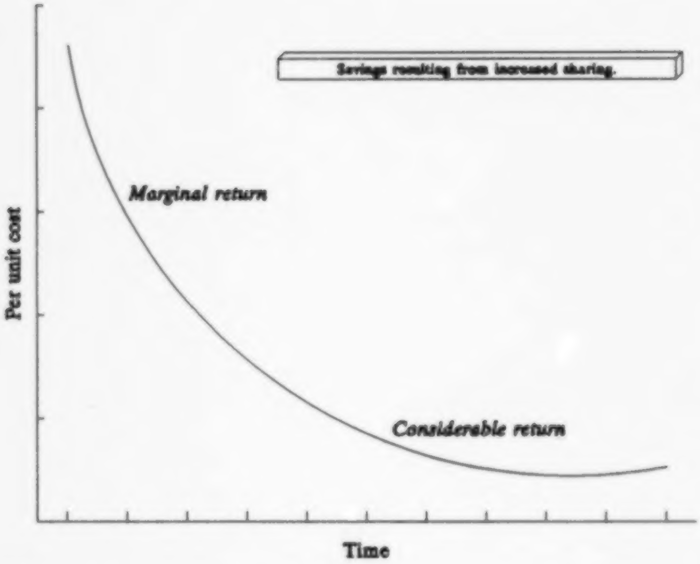

Figure 1. Consolidation and Co-operation in Education.

Again, because of time and costs, it was not possible to conduct all the basic research necessary to answer some of the questions that were raised, such as, "What has been the total extent of church input?", and "To what degree would church input diminish if a denominational system no longer existed?" In addition, this cost analysis did not attempt to address the larger question of the worth of the denominational system.

These limits led the researchers, on a number of occasions, to use focus groups and interviews to assess the nature and sensitivity of key issues and how they relate to cost. The groups also provided needed background information where primary data were unavailable.

Description of Methods

The Commission thus had to take into account several factors, such as the kind of data available and the complexity of the system, in deciding on the most appropriate research methodology for providing reliable results and allowing for meaningful conclusions. The methodology adopted centred on the development of four distinct education system models or paradigms which could be assessed and compared.[3] Each was a self-contained unit with all of the constituent parts necessary to facilitate comparisons between models. Each represented a mode of educational delivery and each was based upon generally accepted principles, selected operating assumptions and the conditions governed by these. Two of the models were developed within the framework of a denominational system - one reflecting the current status and the other reflecting an efficient, rationalized denominational system.

The remaining two models were developed outside the framework of a denominational system - one based on current organizational guidelines and the other based on efficiency and scale economies.

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[3] A model is a set of variables and relationships, the combination of which is used to describe or explain a problem. Because not all variables can be included nor all possible relationships hypothesized in any one model, a number of models is frequently required to address a complex problem or set of problems. In this case, the problem was not restricted to the costs associated with the denominational system. The study had to identify and measure costs associated with alternatives.

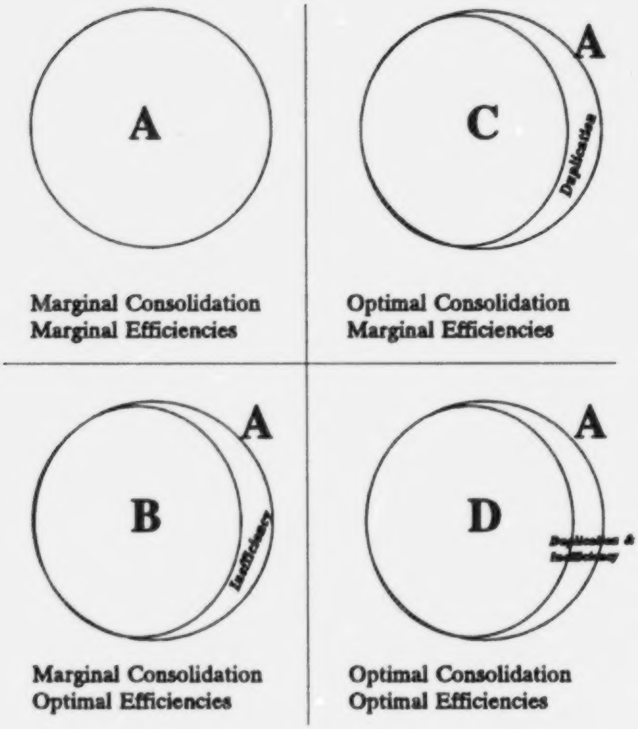
The two "rational models" (B and D) deal with a number of sensitive issues. They raise questions about the characteristics of effective school districts, optimal school units, administrative efficiency and bus transportation. In no case were the legal, constitutional or political implications addressed.

The framework from which the four individual models were developed is illustrated in Figure 2, and the interrelationships between models is illustrated in Figure 3. A brief explanation of each model follows.

| | **Denominational Structure** | **Non-denominational Structure** |
|---|---|---|
| **Existing Guidelines for School District Organization** | **A** | **C** |
| **Rational Approach to School District Organization** | **B** | **D** |

Figure 2. Framework for the Development of Individual Cost Models.

| | |
|---|---|
| *Model A* | This model represents the *status quo* and is based on the number of students, and the number and nature of school districts, schools, teacher allocations, and regulations and grants that were in existence for the 1989-90 school year. Model A serves as a baseline for Models B, C, and D. |
| *Model B* | This scenario represents what the existing school system would look like and cost at a maximum level of consolidation and sharing among schools and school districts. Within this framework, the number of school boards would be reduced to minimal levels and schools would be consolidated based upon acceptable parameters for school size, reasonable conditions for student transportation, and demonstrated need. The *cost of inefficiencies* within the denominational system was defined as the difference between Model A and Model B costs. |
| *Model C* | This model represents what the education system would look like and cost if it were non-denominational but, in all other respects, structured and operated with the same level of efficiency as the present system (Model A). Within this framework, there would exist a single set of non-denominational boards paralleling the current guidelines for school district organization. The *cost of the maintenance of the denominational system* was defined as the difference between Model A and Model C costs. |
| *Model D* | This scenario presents a picture of what Model C would look like and cost at a maximum level of consolidation and sharing among schools and school districts. Within this framework, there would also exist a single set of non-denominational boards reduced to |


A
C
A
Duplication
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Marginal Efficiencies
Optimal Consolidation
Marginal Efficiencies
A
B
Inefficiency
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D
Duplication &
Inefficiency
Marginal Consolidation
Optimal Efficiencies
Optimal Consolidation
Optimal Efficiencies

Figure 3. Interrelationships between Models.

minimal levels. In addition, schools would be consolidated, based upon acceptable parameters for school size, reasonable conditions for student transportation and demonstrated need. *The cost of denominational duplication within a rationalized structure* was defined as the difference between Model B and Model D costs.

The method used to establish individual models was based on a process involving a number of steps and leading to a comparison of costs. Some steps were performed identically in each model, while others required different procedures in different models. Further, some steps were judgemental in nature while others mechanically applied "rules". Those that were judgemental were based on solid background evidence, research findings, available data, and the conclusions of informed individuals. A summary of the steps required for determining the costs associated with Model B in relation to Model A is shown in Figure 4. This process was then repeated for the remaining models.

While the steps may appear simple enough, each one is a labyrinth of information, determinants, constraints and judgments. Further examination will indicate the complexity of the process. The steps described above were broken down into supplementary steps which were further broken down into still other steps. This process was repeated for each model. Step #7 *Determine Costs*, for example, was further subdivided into school district costs, instructional costs, operations and maintenance costs, student transportation costs and other costs. Operations and maintenance costs were further separated by size of school, type of program, location, and number of students.

Unavoidably, because of measurement problems or a lack of unifying research, some steps

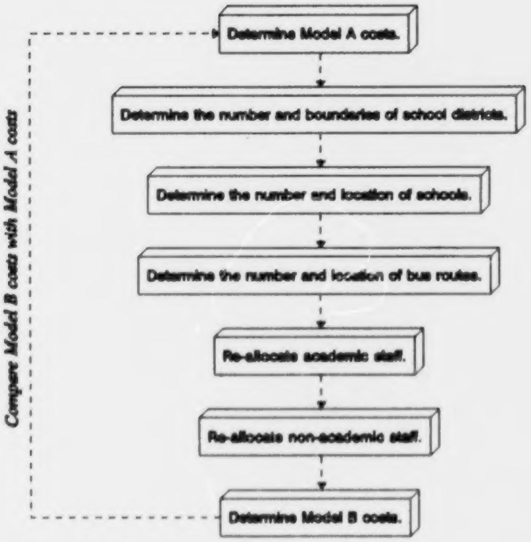
Determine Model A costs.
Determine the number and boundaries of school districts.
Determine the number and location of schools.
Determine the number and location of bus routes.
Re-allocate academic staff.
Re-allocate non-academic staff.
Determine Model B costs.
*Compare Model B costs with Model A costs*

Figure 4. Steps Involved in the Costing of Model B.

introduced elements of subjectivity and uncertainty, and could therefore be open to challenge. In those cases, sensitivity analyses were performed allowing one set of assumptions to be varied while keeping the remainder constant and all other data at their given values. This was an invaluable tool, particularly when confronting thorny issues such as the formation of school district boundaries and school consolidation.

## Data Sources

### Main Data Sources

After examining the available data on school district and school organization, and on resource allocation and distribution, it was concluded, with some exceptions, that it would not be necessary or feasible to undertake a comprehensive province-wide survey encompassing all components of education finance or a longitudinal analysis to complete the investigation. A great deal of information was available from a number of different sources, but ways and means had to be found to integrate the available data from the most recent time period into a single dataset.

First, the existing data sources for the study were collected using a number of methods, then assembled and blended. The extensive resources of the Department of Education were drawn upon to supply data about all aspects of the system and how it is financed. A summary of the primary data sources retrieved from the Department of Education, the formats used, and the individuals associated with each is presented in Table 1.

Many of these datasets were blended into new, larger databases to facilitate the macro-level analyses required for the study. In addition, because of different data formats and the nature of the analyses, three different computer programs had to be employed - a spreadsheet, a database management program and a statistical analysis package.[4] Further complicating the analyses was the sheer size of the

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[4] Lotus 123, dBASE IV and SPSS PC+.

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datasets, and the effort that had to be expended developing and running the analyses required. Each school district required the construction of (a) computer files containing background information for later analysis, (b) files analyzing the schools under its custody, leading to decisions concerning consolidation, (c) files producing an intermediate analysis of the resource allocations (original schools), (d) files producing a final analysis of the resource allocations (consolidated schools), and files analyzing the 1989-90 financial returns based on new data. This procedure was then repeated for each of the school districts and this whole process was then repeated for each model. The sheer magnitude of creating, integrating, analyzing, filing and securing more than 500 files in several formats was a demanding exercise in itself.

Table 1. Summary of Data Sources, Department of Education.

| | Primary Database | Format | Source |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | School Board Financial Statements | Lotus | John Berniquez |
| 2. | AGR School-based Information System | dBASE | Jill Andrews |
| 3. | Teacher Pension/Payroll/Certification System | dBASE | Jill Andrews |
| 4. | Teacher Allocation System | Lotus | John Thompson |
| 5. | School/Community Distances | Lotus | John Humber |
| 6. | Bus Contracts/Distances/Costs | dBASE | Gerry Adams |
| 7. | Kindergarten Routes/Distances/Costs | dBASE | Gerry Adams |
| 8. | Demographics/Achievement/Staffing | SPSS | new/blended |
| 9. | School Characteristics/Consolidation | dBASE | new/blended |

Another data source was the use of expert panels, focus groups and semi-structured interviews. At a number of critical stages, decisions were made drawing not just upon the findings of related research but requiring the opinions, information and advice of individuals informed about and sensitive toward the education system, governance and local conditions. At the same time, it was considered essential to interview a number of individuals familiar with education finance and funding structures.

Supplementary Data Sources

A final source of information involved the collection of supplementary data. Several voids were identified which could not be filled by available data and which were of sufficient importance to warrant the development of new datasets. Two are worthy of brief mention at this point: (a) school operating costs, and (b) central office staff costs.

School Operating Costs. During the investigation, the need to collect reliable data on the cost of operating schools was seen as a priority. A survey of officials working with school boards was conducted to determine school costs for the 1989-90 school year, regional variances, school (type) variances, and district variances and to project part of the costs associated with school consolidation. Ten boards were thus surveyed and responses were received from nine of them (n = 139).

The purpose of the exercise was to understand the relationship between size and cost and predict the costs associated with consolidation. The variables analyzed were school size, total cost and per pupil cost. Trend analysis, using various regression (curve fitting) techniques, was completed to determine the predicted cost. Table 2 presents the predicted school operating costs categorized by school size.

Table 2. Predicted School Operating Costs by School Size Category.

| Size of School | Predicted Cost |
|---|---|
| <75 | $457 |
| 75-124 | 438 |
| 125-174 | 420 |
| 175-224 | 402 |
| 225-274 | 383 |
| 275+ | 365 |

Central Office Staff Costs. The need for reliable data on the cost of operating school district offices was also identified. A survey of 14 boards was conducted to discover the number and types of positions and the associated salaries. Results were compared with similar information collected for the 1989 Task Force on Education Finance.[5] There were significant variances among central offices in the number of, and salaries paid to, business managers and various support staff. For example, with the exception of the Seventh-Day Adventist board, all boards had business managers, while some also had assistant business managers, office managers, and accountants. Differences were thus related, in large part, to the number of staff in the central office and the school board's budget.

### Validation and Interpretation

Great pains were taken to ensure that both the research methodology and the data sources were valid. The methodology was also examined by and discussed with a number of authorities prominent in their fields and in a position to understand and advise as to its validity and authenticity.

Finally, a supplementary contract was commissioned with Ernst & Young, management consultants. M. Bleau, a principal with the firm's Toronto office, undertook a detailed analysis of the appropriateness and suitability of the methodology, data collection procedures and proposed analyses. This report was received December 10, 1990, allowing ample opportunity to review and implement the suggested changes.

Interpretation of Findings

One must be very careful in interpreting the findings of this study in relation to the limitations described earlier. For example, it is important to bear in mind that the findings represent one time period only and do not reflect the most recent efforts on the part of school boards to consolidate. A longitudinal study similar in nature to this one but focusing on changes over a number of years, would almost certainly find a trend toward sharing and inter-denominational co-operation. Because this study deals with one time interval, it is probably more appropriate to compare relative values rather than actual dollars when examining costs and savings.

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[5] Supplied to the Commission by George Whey.

## II. CONTEXTUAL ISSUES IN EDUCATION FINANCE

Part II of this report establishes the framework for the study. It provides the context of how education is organized in Canada and in particular in this province and shows some of the trends and describes some of the problems unique to Newfoundland. It then sketches some of the issues typical in education finance, namely: principles, efficiencies, revenue generation, and resource allocation. It concludes by describing two of the most troublesome educational issues affected by finance programs - the organization of school districts and schools.

### What is Education Finance?

Education finance refers to the process by which tax revenues and other resources are derived for the establishment and operation of schools, as well as the process by which those resources are allocated. It begins with major decisions about education, such as who will be educated, who will teach them, where they will be housed and how they will be taught. It then deals with such questions as how much money should be spent on education, how this money can best be raised, how the funds should be redistributed to provide the best education system for their value, and how to ensure the most efficient use of resources. While, in the past, decisions at this level went largely unchallenged, a much more educated population is demanding more input into educational decisions, and that government and other educational agencies be held more accountable than they have been.

The principles of education finance are deceptively simple. Funds to provide for the education of children are provided in a manner which ensures taxpayer equity. The education system must then provide all students, whatever their economic and social backgrounds or locations, with equal access to these resources. Finally, the education system must exhibit financial responsibility and accountability for all aspects of the educational process. These principles, however, fail to address a basic practical dilemma: how to ensure equal access to these resources while facing a critical scarcity of means. Whatever the available resources, there are always more demands than can be satisfied.

The issue of productive use, or efficiency, thus permeates all other principles and aspects of the decision-making process. As stated by Levin (1989):

> *Different approaches to the provision of education and to determining where resources are used can also affect the productivity of resource use. Economically efficient use of resources within the educational sector requires that they be allocated to maximize educational outcomes. Even small losses in efficiency can waste billions of dollars in an educational sector ... not to mention the waste of student time and the other human costs.* (p. 13)

Not always do these principles have a harmonious relationship with each other nor with the demands of efficiency. Frequently, educators must deal with conflicting principles before making critical decisions. For example, pressures by some groups to promote excellence are not always compatible with concurrent moves by other groups to embrace greater efficiency. Furthermore, the principle of student equity as described above is congruent with neither. Other dilemmas facing educators are to resolve conflicts between certain organizational and implementation principles. For example, the issue of decentralization, a recurrent theme in education, is closely - and inversely - linked with the principle of efficiency.

### Financing Education in Canada

Effective and efficient education is of vital importance to all Canadians in that education is the means to greater social and economic health. Because of its high level of national importance, the education process might be expected to attract a great deal of federal intervention. In Canada, this in not the case. The *British North America Act* of 1867, and similar subsequent legislation, empowered the provinces with the responsibility for the provision of education. In this type of structure, educational needs are thus assessed provincially and programs are developed which reflect these needs. However, the federal government maintains educational responsibilities for Native Peoples, inmates of federal penal institutions, and members of the armed services and their dependents. Frequently, conditional arrangements are made between the federal and provincial governments to enhance the educational opportunities available to Canadian students.

Given the vast differences between regions in this country, it is not surprising that the provinces have each responded to the delivery of education in separate and distinct ways. Each province developed its own unique philosophy of education which has evolved into the largely discrete systems which are in place today. Alberta, Saskatchewan and Ontario are examples of systems maintaining both public and private schools. New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island have, by law, only secular public schools. However, informal agreements allow for the establishment of public schools set aside for Roman Catholics and Protestants and administered by a local authority. In some instances, these schools are staffed by teachers of the sponsoring religious denomination. Both Manitoba and British Columbia maintain secular public schools only; however, there are provisions for private schools to receive some public funds. Quebec and Newfoundland have the only publicly funded school systems set up along denominational lines. Quebec maintains both Roman Catholic and Protestant boards, the latter serving other Christian denominations, Jews and other non-Christians. It also provides financial support to private schools. In many respects, its system of education mirrors its distinctive Francophone culture, a system which supports the existence of both English and Francophone schools.

The per-pupil expenditure on education varies greatly from province to province as well, reflecting the prevailing economic conditions, availability and price of goods and services, tax base and student population. Per-pupil school board expenditure in 1988 varied from a low of $3,861 in Prince Edward Island to a high of $5,389 in Quebec. British Columbia had the lowest expenditure per capita of the labour force ($1,454) while Newfoundland had the highest ($2,208).

As illustrated in Table 3, generally, school board revenues come from three primary sources: (1) provincial government grants, (2) local taxation (such as property taxes), and (3) other sources (e.g. federal grants, school-based fund-raising, rentals, etc.). Boards in two provinces receive substantial revenues through the collection of municipal contributions and one province through the levying of tuition fees. Various formulas and principles are employed throughout the country for the determination of provincial grant allocations to individual school districts, but most provide grants based on student enrolments as well as equalization grants and many special grants to address specific inequities.

Alberta, Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick require boards to submit budgets which are prioritized for capital disbursements, Ontario's basic per student grant is determined by the Average Daily Enrolment (ADE) of schools, while Nova Scotia has a rather complex method of weighted student units. Nevertheless, all of the provinces strive for a system of educational funding that is efficient, effective, equitable and which enhances local autonomy.

## Financing Education in Newfoundland

Newfoundland education has been inextricably intertwined with the various churches since its beginnings some 250 years ago. Before government funding, the churches paid for all capital and operating costs of running the schools and were directly involved in their day-to-day operations. When the government finally became involved in educational matters, the churches exerted considerable influence over decisions about education funding and legislation. They had made a significant investment in the education system and through lobbying activities and political pressure maintained their direct role in administering the system while receiving public funding from the government.

Table 3. Sources of School Board Revenues by Province in Percentages, 1989-90.

| | Provincial | School Taxes | Other Sources |
|---|---|---|---|
| Newfoundland | 90.6 | 7.3 | 2.0 |
| Prince Edward Island | 99.6 | | 0.4 |
| Nova Scotia | 80.8 | 16.4 | 2.7 |
| New Brunswick | 97.9 | | 2.1 |
| Quebec | 90.9 | 4.9 | 4.2 |
| Ontario | 41.8 | 56.2 | 2.0 |
| Manitoba | 50.7 | 44.5 | 4.8 |
| Saskatchewan | 48.8 | 47.5 | 3.7 |
| Alberta | 53.2 | 41.7 | 5.1 |
| British Columbia | 63.6 | 31.1 | 5.3 |

Source: *A Statistical Portrait of Elementary and Secondary Education in Canada*, a joint publication of the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada and Statistics Canada, preliminary data.

With Confederation in 1949, church involvement in Newfoundland education was entrenched in Canadian law as well, when Term 17 of Newfoundland's Terms of Union with Canada preserved the churches' right to operate public denominational schools in the new province:

> *In lieu of Section 93 of the British North America Act, 1867, the following term shall apply in respect of the Province of Newfoundland:*
>
> *In and for the Province of Newfoundland the Legislature shall have exclusive authority to make laws in relation to education, but the Legislature will not have authority to make laws prejudicially affecting any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools, common (amalgamated schools), or denominational colleges, that any class or classes of persons have by law in Newfoundland at the date of Union, and out of public funds of the Province of Newfoundland provided for education*
>
> *a. all such schools shall receive their share of such funds in accordance with scales determined on a non-discriminatory basis from time to time by the Legislature for all schools then being conducted under authority of the Legislature; and*
>
> *b. all such colleges shall receive their share of any grant from time to time voted for all colleges then being conducted under authority of the Legislature, on a non-discriminatory basis.*

In 1987, the Parliament of Canada, following approval by the Legislature of Newfoundland, renumbered the above-quoted text of Term 17 as sub-section (1) and enacted subsection (2) which extended to adherents of the Pentecostal faith in Newfoundland the same rights and privileges with respect to denominational schools and denominational colleges as were enjoyed by the classes of persons to whom sub-section (1) applied.

The final report of the Warren Royal Commission on Education was the catalyst for the 1969 reorganization of the education system when functional organization replaced the denominational structure at the Department of Education. Denominational Education Councils were created to fulfil a liaison role among the recognized Churches and with government. Five of the Protestant denominations integrated in order to provide a higher standard of education for their students. Warren's recommendations drastically changed the profile of the system, reducing both the number of school boards and the number of individual schools in operation.

As the population expanded over the years, the number of multiple denomination communities increased considerably, so that it was not uncommon to see three small denominational schools representing each of the recognized denominations in a community with fewer than 100 students in total. However, during the past 25 years, the churches have made considerable efforts to reduce the incidence of such situations, and the number of schools decreased from 1,244 with 270 boards in 1960, to 543 schools under 32 boards in 1989-90 (the year under study).

Several other problems unique to the Newfoundland system seriously constrain the province's ability to provide equitable educational opportunities for all students. The geography, topography, and settlement patterns in this province have resulted in a large number of small, isolated schools. Only 10.5 percent of schools have 500 or more students, even with the consolidation that has taken place.

Demographic forecasts for the province indicate a number of significant future trends. As stated in Chapter 3, declining fertility rates and an extremely high level of out-migration will lead to further enrolment declines. Undoubtedly, this will lead to increased pressure on educational institutions.

School board operating funds now come from two main sources: government grants and local efforts. In 1989-90 government contributed 91 percent of the total cost of education through operating grants, teachers' salaries grants, maintenance grants, bus transportation grants, textbook subsidies, and other special purpose grants. School boards raised the remaining nine percent through a number of means, chiefly school taxes, and lesser amounts from school assessments, rentals, donations, school projects and other sources.

While operating grants are paid directly to school boards, capital grants are paid to the Denominational Councils and to the Seventh-Day Adventist Church authorities. The apportionment of funds is in the same ratio that the population of each Denominational Council bears to the total population of the province in accordance with the most recent census. Each Council then decides where money will be spent to build and improve its schools.

The evolution of public financing of elementary and secondary education in this province is as long and convoluted as its history, affected by demography, topography, geography, industry, culture, values and traditions and its unique denominational structures. The extreme population sparsity of this province, for instance, has affected the type of, and provision for, the system of education in this province in several ways. The existence of hundreds of small and isolated fishing communities scattered along the coast has meant not only an unusually large number of small schools but also sometimes insurmountable difficulties in providing in-service training, teacher travel, program co-ordinator visits and the retention of experienced teaching staff.

A recurring theme among public educators everywhere - and this province is no exception - is the accusation that all education systems are inadequately funded. To promote horizontal equity (equal money per student), the government of this province instituted equalization grants to compensate for revenue differentials resulting from less tax potential in small rural areas. However, these grants fail to recognize cost differentials that exist from region to region and, therefore, do not provide an equitable resolution to the problem of unequal local tax revenue.

Over the past 25 years, school boards have acquired a heavy burden of debt resulting from "the inadequate grants that school boards receive for the operations and maintenance of schools and the inability of the present capital grant to meet existing needs".[6] In 1989-90, this debt stood at over $41 million; however, the provincial government has been providing a special grant for the retirement of this debt and has recommended that school boards not borrow funds in excess of a ceiling amount determined by provincial authorities.

The problems associated with facilities, such as the replacement of obsolete buildings to accommodate new programs (especially at the junior high and senior high levels), improvements to make existing structures conform with health and safety standards, and the provision of accessibility for handicapped students, are areas of concern when financing the education system. The financial requirements for upgrading and replacing functionally and physically obsolete school facilities have been estimated to be well in excess of $150,000,000. However, little research has been completed to validate this figure or to understand fully its implications and consequences.

If Newfoundland schools are to produce well-educated, socially adapted and emotionally prepared students, the education system will also have to adapt to the pressures experienced by today's students in order to meet their needs and society's need for an effective and efficient education system.

### Principles of Education Finance

Since the responsibility for the provision of educational services has been legislated to the individual provinces, the financing of such services is implemented in a manner decided by each provincial government. However, recent developments in educational finance across the country have been aimed at achieving six principles commonly recognized in the educational finance literature as the standards against which educational finance plans ought to be assessed:

1. Every student in a province should have access to quality educational programs and services that reasonably respond to his or her individual needs, regardless of that student's interests and abilities, regardless of where that student lives, regardless of that student's cultural and socio-economic environment.
2. Every school board in a province should have access to sufficient revenues to provide quality educational programs and services that meet the needs of its students.
3. The plan of financial support should ensure reasonable equality for all taxpayers.
4. Within general provincial guidelines, the financing plan should provide maximum opportunity and encouragement for the development and exercise of local autonomy and leadership in education.
5. The financial provisions of a grant system should encourage sound and efficient organization, administration and operation of local school districts and schools.
6. The financing plan should emphasize continuous evaluation, long-range planning, and overall accountability for the expenditure of public funds.[7]

Local autonomy is directly related to the level of decentralization inherent in an education system. The personal nature of education necessitates that local conditions, characteristics and circumstances be considered in local educational decisions. Local autonomy is vital in an education system if local priorities and needs are to be effectively satisfied.

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[6] Joint Denominational Education Council submission to the Task Force on Educational Finance, 1989.

[7] Cited in C. Roebothan, P.J. Warren, and W. Dixon, *Financing Greater Equality and Excellence in the Newfoundland School System*, 1989.

The extent of decentralization has a direct impact on financial planning activities. The government of this province, for example, currently provides funding for school projects in the form of either categorical or global grants. While global grants enhance autonomy, there are problems associated with them in the area of accountability. On the other hand, categorical grants tend to restrict local autonomy, but prioritized projects are ensured completion.

The central governmental bodies of each province are too distant from the mechanisms which distribute the service of education (the schools) to assess effectively the financial needs of these institutions. One alternative to such centralized decision-making is district-based budgeting, a concept whereby each school board creates its own budget and controls spending within its district. At the local level needs can be assessed effectively and provisions can be made to satisfy them. Some proponents of this concept would even advocate that budgeting should be the responsibility of each individual school, which would then be responsible for such things as personnel, equipment and maintenance. However, the logistic and administrative realities of such decentralization make the full implementation of school-based budgeting impractical.

Providing equal educational opportunity to all Canadian students is one of the biggest challenges facing governments and administrators today. Ensuring that every student, regardless of location, age, sex, religion, race and other considerations, is provided with equal funding, staff and services is the goal of *horizontal equity* theorists on the assumption that equality of educational inputs will lead to an equal opportunity for education. Provincial funding and, increasingly, foundation programs are used to facilitate equality of inputs. Thus, lower tax-generating regions are provided funds to bring them up to par with boards in higher tax districts. Some proponents of horizontal equity have suggested that provincial pooling of commercial assessments for redistribution would be a positive step towards equality. However, this solution jeopardizes the local autonomy of school districts and has, therefore, generally been considered an unacceptable alternative.

Whether the differences arise from different cultures, geographic locations, lifestyles, learning abilities, or physical or mental abilities, the fact is that all students are not equal when they enter school. *Vertical equity* theory thus proposes that since all students are different when they enter school, it will take different amounts of input to achieve an acceptable, standard level of output. Recognition of cost differentials and the use of weighting factors can be used to distribute more financial and personnel resources to schools and school boards where the needs are greater. By including and balancing both horizontal and vertical equity theory in funding formulae, financial administrators can provide an equal educational opportunity for their students as well as a fair tax burden for the taxpayers in their jurisdictions.

### Economies of Scale vs Organizational Efficiency

Economies of scale are savings which come from cost reductions associated with large-size operations. In an education system such savings can be realized through volume discounts, use of excess capacity and allocation of fixed and capital costs over a larger student base. Economy of scale theory, by its nature, implies that - financially - bigger is better. Organizational efficiency, on the other hand, recognizes that bigger schools and school districts may not always perform as efficiently as smaller ones. Services to remote areas may be more efficiently delivered through small service centres.

Thus, there exists a conflict between economies of scale and organizational efficiencies. The basis of this dilemma lies in the existence of both monetary and non-monetary benefits in the education process. Economies of scale associated with larger schools and districts result in quantifiable, monetary savings but may also cause less apparent, yet nonetheless relevant, qualitative, non-monetary losses in efficient and effective education.

## School Board Organization

The school board is the governing body given responsibility for the delivery of educational programs and services within a geographic region or for a particular group of citizens. During the school year 1989-90, the provincial school system was subdivided into 32 districts governed at the local or regional level by an elected school board. Of the 32 school boards, 18 were Integrated, 12 Roman Catholic, 1 Pentecostal and 1 Seventh Day Adventist. Districts range in size from 300 students under the Seventh Day Adventist board to over 19,000 students under the Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's.

*The Schools Act* outlines the formal duties and powers of school boards in this province. Boards are ultimately responsible for the organization and administration of the means of primary, elementary and secondary education in their districts. To this end, boards provide teachers, other educational personnel, professional services, programs and adequate facilities for the operation of schools. They also develop policies and improve the partnership among home, school and church. Because denominationalism is a major factor in determining school districts' physical parameters, philosophy and functions, boards must follow not only the guidelines established in *The Schools Act*, but must also adhere to the doctrines and provisions of their respective denominational authority.

Every school board is structured as a corporation, with the general authority inherent in such a structure. General elections which take place every four years are the mechanism through which citizens (not fewer than 7 and no more than 18) are elected to positions as school board trustees. Each school board is responsible for hiring the professional staff (superintendent, assistant superintendents, business manager, secretarial support, program co-ordinators) necessary for fulfilment of its legal mandate. In the process of doing their work, school boards also purchase, acquire or dispose of lands and property, manage district debts, prepare an annual budget and audit, and assume responsibility for the insurance requirements of all their buildings and equipment. Boards are also responsible for the provision of school busing. Policy development and the mandate to enter into contracts and agreements with other school boards, agencies or community groups for the joint use of resources, such as school buildings or community arenas, are powers vested with school boards. Boards can also raise money and, when necessary, expel students.

Characteristics of Effective School Boards. In his report to the Commission, Treslan defines the local school district as "a geographical area of student population over which a governing body (the school board) makes decisions regarding both the purpose and direction of educational experience". In considering potential reorganization of the education system, the Commission considered a number of factors critical to the development of effective and efficient school districts. One of the key factors was size.

*Size*. The Commission found no evidence that district size is a significant factor in student achievement, the quality of services or cost effectiveness. Some make the case that larger districts have advantages because spending priorities can be shifted to more productive activities, that achievement is generally higher, and that better qualified teachers tend to be associated with larger school systems. In most cases, however, differences in achievement cannot be traced to differences in district size. When differences do exist, it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to isolate a causal relationship between these variables when so many other factors affect student achievement.

It should be noted, however, that district size is not the only significant factor in productivity differences among schools. In many respects, the province is too small to exploit the prevailing economies of scale. Other factors include

*Area and Distance*. The geographical area for which the board is responsible and the distance between schools within the district are features which have implications for the effectiveness of student transportation, in-service provision, and visits from district office personnel.

*Access*. Topography and settlement patterns have resulted in many communities that are remote, isolated and/or otherwise small. Many of these communities can only be reached by boat or plane and this fact contributes to the difficulty of providing educational services. Travel to these communities as well as the provision of district services is much more expensive than in communities which are more easily accessible. Therefore, the number of such communities in each district must be a factor when considering organization.

*Orientation*. The proximity to major service centres, where goods and services are readily available and frequently less expensive, provides resources and attractions for both staff and students.

*Demographic Trends*. Changing demographic patterns will be felt more severely in some areas of the province than in others. Rural school districts are hit the hardest by declining enrolments which will make it much more difficult to maintain viable educational services.

*Climatic Conditions*. The harsh winter climate of most areas of this province can result in problems for travel, student transportation, school buildings and facilities, and in extended periods of isolation.

### School Organization

The school, through its principal, teachers and other educational personnel, is responsible for assessing and developing the educational potential of the children who have been entrusted to it. Educators must co-operate with parents to strive to ensure that children receive an appropriate education, develop a love of learning and acquire adequate preparation to meet the challenges of a rapidly changing nation and world. Within the current denominational education system in this province, the school is also responsible for strengthening the partnership among home, church and school through religious education classes, the example of teachers, maintaining an overall Christian atmosphere, and other faith-building activities.

Part IV of *The Schools Act* contains the legislative provisions for the operation of schools. In it, the principal of the school is responsible for instructional leadership; the provision of education that is consistent with the Act; assessment of and provision for students' needs; informing parents of students' progress and development; evaluation of and feedback about school programs; managing the school; promoting positive relations among the school, community and home; evaluating teachers; maintaining students' records; maintaining discipline and suspending students.

In conjunction with their principal, teachers also have obvious responsibilities in the education process. They must design, implement, supervise and assess educational programs; instruct, encourage and evaluate students' progress; maintain order and discipline; encourage the participation of parents in the child's education and maintain expected standards of education while teaching the course of study prescribed or approved under *The Schools Act*.

Characteristics of Effective Schools. School organization is contingent on many logistical, religious, economic, educational and social factors which combine to determine the location and enrolment of individual Newfoundland schools. Before evaluating the relative merits of various types of schools, one should be aware of the characteristics generally agreed upon as reflecting good, effective schools. A good or effective school is one which has high expectations for, and attainment of, academic achievement, while emphasizing academic basics. It provides for individualized instruction, and utilizes academic learning time effectively and efficiently in an orderly, supportive school climate. Respectful relationships among students, teachers and administrators are developed and maintained in order to deliver a healthy balance of activities fostering the intellectual, physical, emotional, social and spiritual development of students.

Effective schools also recognize and respond to the need for teachers to pursue learning opportunities and support individual initiatives and new approaches to learning. Feedback and evaluation tools are consistently and constantly employed by teachers as well as by a principal who provides instructional leadership for the school.

Important in the establishment of a good school is supportive home/school/ community relations. Through the integration of these characteristics a clear mission can be developed for good, effective schools. In this regard, several characteristics are worthy of examination.

*Achievement*. The relationship between school size and achievement is significant, although it would be inappropriate to conclude that simply increasing school size will increase achievement levels. Most large schools are found in the large urban centres which have access to greater community resources and stimulative environments (human resources, facilities and Arts and Culture Centres, for example). Students in larger centres have an opportunity to see examples of the benefits of education, and see adults in many types of gainful employment. A significant variable related to achievement, though, has been found to be socio-economic status. Most recent studies have shown that when socio-economic status is controlled for, school size itself becomes an insignificant predictor of achievement. Areas which can support a well-educated, skilled workforce, especially the civil service and university, will have parents who are able to support their children's academic activities, provide them with materials, and, as well, set high expectations and serve as role models. Well-educated and relatively well-off parents are also much more likely to provide a stimulating pre-school environment and be able to contribute to good health by adequately meeting children's nutritional requirements.

*Cost*. Because of scale economies and the ability to introduce efficiencies, the per unit cost of operating small schools is higher than for larger ones. Focus group participants, brought together to discuss the issue of school size, held that it is more expensive to close small community schools and bus students to central locations. However, there is no data to support this notion. Further, the costs associated with consolidation are dependent on many factors, not the least of which is the social cost of underachievement.

*Community/School Relationship*. Parental and community support are key elements in school improvement programs. If children are bused out of a community, ties to the school are cut, parents have little opportunity to visit the school, the teachers are not seen regularly, and there is likely to be a greater separation between home and school for both parents and children. Current reform movements have recognized the value of the role of parents in education.

*Program*. Arguments in favour of large schools usually focus on the improvements to school curriculum and extra-curricular programs. Traditionally program considerations have been regarded as more important at the high school level where a significant depth of subject-area knowledge is required to teach most courses. At the primary and elementary levels this is less likely to be the case.

## School Size

Although in the Newfoundland context discussions of optimal school size are often academic - the reality is that small, isolated communities must have their own schools regardless of their population[8] - in many areas, small schools do exist side-by-side with other small schools. Indeed, this situation also exists in urban settings. The question then is whether the merits of these "optional" small schools outweigh the potential benefits that may be obtained through consolidation.

Based on the previously-stated characteristics of good schools, the relative merits of both small and large schools can be analyzed. For the purposes of this study, a school is considered *small* if it is exclusively a primary, elementary or junior high school with a mean grade enrolment of 12 or less, or, if it is a school where senior high school courses are provided, and the mean grade enrolment is 25 or less.[9]

Proponents of small schools have put forward strong arguments in favour of their existence. Small schools, they say, have a great level of school spirit and community involvement, and a better capacity to meet individual students' needs. Further, teachers in these schools become more involved in responding to students' academic and extra-curricular needs. The research to date, however, has been largely inconclusive. Questions about what is a successful school, or what are the factors which affect school success, have yet to be adequately resolved. Much of the confusion arises because small schools tend to be in small communities and, as a result, enrolment tends to be a function of population density. Further, much of the research has been conducted in the United States where small schools tend to be larger (average size, 477) than those in this province (average size, 250).

In this province, while studies have revealed that student achievement is highly correlated with school size, it has also been shown that most larger schools are located in urban areas which have access to wider human, physical and cultural resources. Thus, it would be extremely difficult to prove a causal relationship between student achievement and school size.

The main conclusion reached after careful analysis of the available research, focus group responses, and interviews is that the school size debate is inconclusive. This is because school size is but one of many factors which affect educational outcomes and the quality of school life. In some circumstances school size may be the most significant factor affecting the learning environment or achievement, but it is not the only factor.

Maximum School Size. Although the literature on school size is inconclusive, to determine the extent of duplication and for the purposes of costing various components of the system, a maximum desirable school size had to be established. Results from focus groups and research activities demonstrated that there are maximum levels which a school should not exceed. Given the characteristics of good schools and the continuing debate regarding the relative merits of small and large schools, the following guidelines have been established:

Primary & Elementary School: For schools offering Kindergarten through Grade 6 (K-6) programs, two streams are considered most effective, with average class sizes not exceeding 30 students per grade per stream. Thus, a maximum enrolment of 420 students for a K-6 school is suggested.

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[8] Many of the small schools in Newfoundland are also located in isolated communities. If the students in these schools were to go to larger facilities, they would have to spend varying amounts of time each day commuting by bus. The 1988 Small Schools Study recommended that primary and elementary children not be bused any farther than 10 km from their communities and high school pupils no farther than 30 km.

[9] First derived by Riggs (1984) in his study of small schools and subsequently incorporated in the province's resource allocation program.

Junior High School: Students in Grades 7-9 are progressing through a particularly difficult period in their personal and social development - adolescence. For administrators and teachers to be fully sensitive to these needs, three streams are considered most effective for junior high schools, with average class sizes not exceeding 30 students per grade per stream. Typically, junior high grades are combined with either elementary or secondary grades. Thus, an enrolment of 90 students for each grade in the junior high level is suggested as optimal.

High School: Newfoundland's high schools need to be large enough to offer a wide curriculum and a host of extra-curricular activities but still small enough to provide a good atmosphere for learning and a sense of belonging for students and staff. Thus, the range of 500-800 students is suggested as optimal, with an enrolment ceiling of 900 students.

Despite these guidelines, it would be improper, impractical and insensitive for the Department of Education or any other provincial body to legislate minimum or maximum school size, as too many of the local factors described earlier come into play. School histories, traditional community rivalries, the role of the church and school reputations are just some of the many considerations which have influenced decision-makers in the past. Nevertheless, considerations related to the educational benefit for the students must take precedence over tangential local concerns and issues.

In any case, all parties to be affected by potential consolidation should have an opportunity to participate in the decision-making process: parents, students, teachers, principals, administrators, board members, board staff, town counsellors, and possibly other community groups and agencies. Others having expertise and interest in the education system as a whole would also have a role to play.

To conclude, so many factors come into play that the strengths and weaknesses of each school, whether small or large, must be treated independently. ***Other things being equal, small schools generally do no better or worse than large schools - except that other things are almost never equal.***

## III. PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA:

### Denominational Paradigms

Part III of this report provides the findings of the two denominational models. Depicting the status quo, model A describes in detail the type of organization and structures which existed in 1990-91. The rational denominational model, while preserving the structures, controls and influence of the churches, estimates the potential for consolidation and streamlining.

## MODEL A - The Existing Denominational System

To calculate the costs of the various components of the existing system of education, it was first necessary to establish a baseline to which the costs of other alternatives could be compared. Model A is this baseline and, unlike the other models, represents an actual situation - the Newfoundland school system as it was organized and managed for the school year 1989-90. Model A calculations therefore use the actual number of school districts and schools, resource allocations, and operational expenditures which were in effect during that school year. Its costs are also a reflection of the policies and practices, the level of sharing and co-operation between and among denominations, and the level of funding available at that time.

### District Organization

In 1989-90, as today, there were four separate denominational jurisdictions in the province (Table 4). The integrated system incorporated 18 school boards, the Roman Catholic system 12 boards, and the Pentecostal and Seventh Day Adventist systems each operated a single province-wide board. In total, there were 32 boards examined under Model A (see Figure 5 and 6). In 1960 there were 232 denominational school districts and another 38 boards for the administration of amalgamated schools, but the total number was reduced to 35 as a result of recommendations in the 1968 Royal Commission on Education. In the year under investigation, districts ranged in size from a small Seventh-Day Adventist school board operating seven schools for 301 students to a large urban Catholic board in St. John's operating 40 schools for almost 20,000 students. The average number of students served by a school board was 4,066.

Geography is a significant factor in the structure and organization of school districts. For some boards, the distances between the central office and some of its schools are enormous. For example, without factoring in indirect costs such as the inappropriate use of staff resources, a meeting between co-ordinators and teachers at an outlying school such as St. Joseph's All-grade in Croque, involving a two-day visit from central office in Corner Brook, generates a huge expense for the board. On the other hand, a similar assignment at a small urban board, such as Conception Bay South, would consume less than a half-hour travel time. The Pentecostal Assemblies School Board, which covers the entire province, utilizes two techniques to overcome the problems of geography: several regions of the province with large Pentecostal populations have resident program co-ordinators, and it utilizes school governing councils, to which considerable powers are delegated.

### School Organization

For the year under investigation, there were 543 schools serving 130,109 students in approximately 302 communities. By and large, enrolment within each jurisdiction was limited to those of the same denomination. This was particularly evident among Roman Catholic districts which were composed of 92.8 percent Roman Catholic students. At the other extreme, almost 70 percent of the students enrolled in Seventh Day Adventist schools were not of that denomination. Of the total enrolment throughout Newfoundland, 3.2 percent was either unaffiliated with any of the founding denominations or professed no religion.

In addition to the publicly funded schools, there were six which were either private, separate native, institutional, or independent schools operated by the Department of Social Services. Together, these schools served some 600 students.

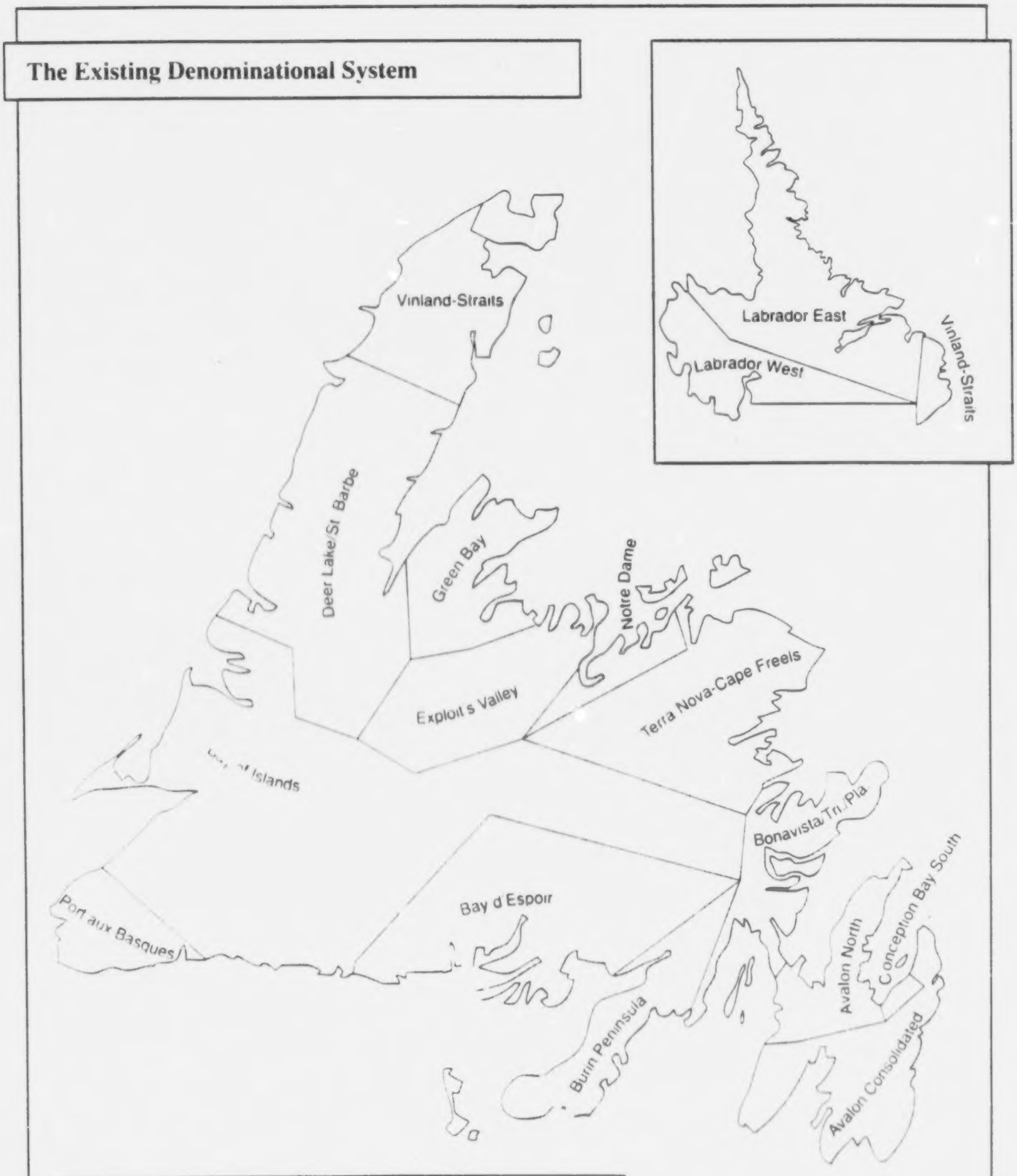
Table 4. Background Information by Denominational Constituency, 1989-90.

| Background Data | Integrated Boards | Roman Catholic Boards | Pentecostal Assemblies Boards | Seventh Day Adventist Boards | Combined |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School districts | 18 | 12 | 1 | 1 | 32 |
| Average school district size | 4,060 | 4,180 | 6,560 | 301 | 4,066 |
| Schools | 312 | 181 | 43 | 7 | 543 |
| Average school size | 234 | 277 | 153 | 43 | 240 |
| Total enrolment | 73,084 | 50,164 | 6,560 | 301 | 130,109 |
| Enrolment Change - Last 5 years[1] | -11.6% | -9.5% | -2.4% | -12.5% | -10.3% |
| - Next 5 years[1] | -12.4% | -11.2% | -9.4% | -12.3% | -11.8% |
| Special education non-integrated | 585 | 386 | 31 | 0 | 1,002 |
| Percent non-integrated | 0.8% | 0.8% | 0.5% | 0.0% | 0.8% |
| French Immersion enrolment | 2,002 | 1,978 | 0 | 0 | 3,980 |
| % French Immersion | 2.7% | 3.9% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 3.1% |
| Other denominations & no religion | 13,863 | 3,612 | 1,171 | 210 | 4,183[2] |
| % other denominations & no religion | 19.0% | 7.2% | 17.9% | 69.8% | 3.2% |
| Superintendents | 19 | 12 | 1 | - | 32 |
| Asst. superintendents | 50 | 28 | 4 | - | 82 |
| Program co-ordinators | 142 | 87 | 9 | 1 | 239 |
| Teachers | 4,229 | 2,866 | 406 | 25 | 7,526 |
| Total | 4,440 | 2,993 | 420 | 26 | 7,879 |
| Pupil/teacher ratio | 17.3 | 17.5 | 16.2 | 12.0 | 17.3 |
| Teacher/pupil ratio (tchs/1000 pupils) | 57.9 | 57.1 | 61.9 | 83.1 | 57.8 |
| Average age | 38.8 | 39.7 | 37.4 | 43.7 | 39.1 |
| Average years experience | 15.0 | 16.0 | 13.4 | 13.7 | 15.3 |
| Participation rate[3] | 79.2 | 73.9 | 69.0 | 28.6 | 76.6 |
| Pass rate[4] | 78.7 | 81.7 | 81.1 | 76.9 | 79.8 |

Notes: [1]Press *Toward 2000* (1990), most-likely projection. [2]Percentage of the total enrolment not affiliated with either of the founding denominations or professing no religion. [3]Grade 12 enrolment as a percent of Grade 8 enrolment 4 years earlier (not adjusted for migration). [4]Total eligible graduates as a percent of total graduates.
Source: Department of Education, various databases.

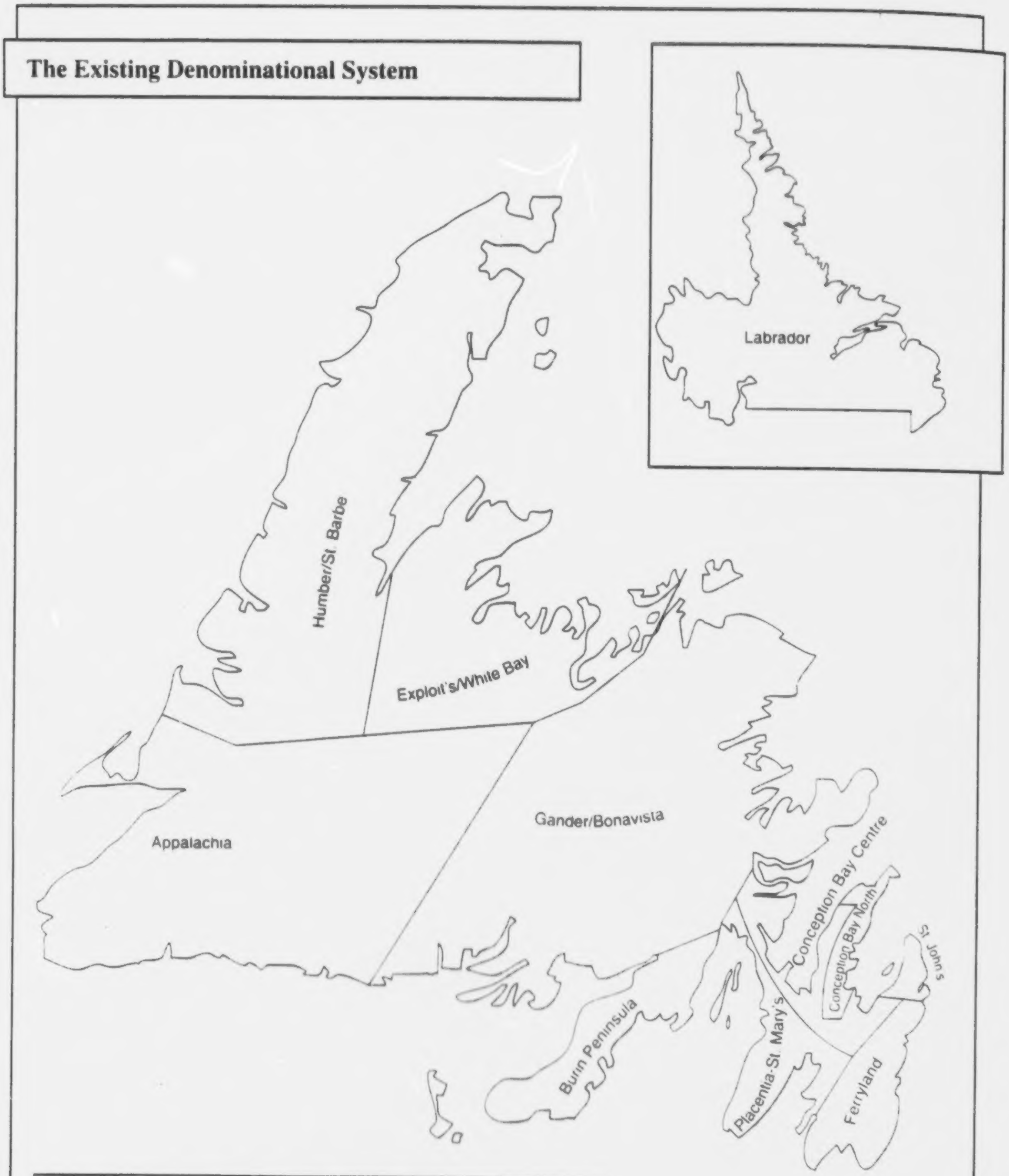
Figure 5

**The Existing Denominational System**


Vinland-Straits
Deer Lake/St Barbe
Green Bay
Notre Dame
Exploits Valley
Terra Nova-Cape Freels
Bay of Islands
Bonavista/Tri./Pla
Port aux Basques
Bay d'Espoir
Burin Peninsula
Avalon North
Conception Bay South
Avalon Consolidated
Labrador East
Labrador West
Vinland-Straits

**Model A — Integrated School Districts.**

Figure 6



The Existing Denominational System

Labrador
Humber/St. Barbe
Exploit's/White Bay
Appalachia
Gander/Bonavista
Conception Bay Centre
Conception Bay North
St. John's
Burin Peninsula
Placentia-St. Mary's
Ferryland

**Model A — Roman Catholic School Districts.**

Further background information showing schools, teachers and enrolment by school district is presented in Table 5. Sixty percent of the school boards were rural in nature and approximately one-half of the students in the province were located in areas predominated by a rural lifestyle. Of the total students enrolled in schools, 16,621 attended 249 schools funded under the small school regulations, although, depending upon the definition used, it can be argued that the real number of small schools was far greater. Further, 883 students were funded under regulations pertaining to special education students, 1,120 pertaining to native students, and 234 pertaining to French first language students. Schools ranged in size from five students in Grades K-4 at Wiltondale to 1,195 in Grades 10-12 at Holy Heart High School, in St. John's. The average school size across the province was 240 students.

These schools were also set up under several grade arrangements, from elementary, to secondary, to all-grade, and every combination of school organization in between. Some high schools brought students in at the Grade 7 level, others at the Grade 9 level and others just offered senior high. Some communities were served by one denomination, others by a joint service arrangement, and others by several separate denominational schools.

The allocation of teaching and administrative units for Model A is presented in Table 6. Based on the existing policies in place at that time, there were 7,149 teachers, 377 principals and 353 central office staff. One teacher was allocated for every 23 students. Additional teaching units were allocated for students in small schools, for native and French language students, and for special services such as guidance, library resources and special education. The largest group other than classroom teachers was special education teachers. Additional central office personnel allocated for Vinland-Strait of Belle Isle, Deer Lake/St. Barbe South, Terra Nova-Cape Freels and Appalachia school boards were the result of the consolidation of boards which took place before the beginning of the 1990-91 school year.

**Student Transportation**

Student transportation is one of the major services provided to students in the province. It takes a significant share of the education budget, takes considerable time and commitment, and requires a great deal of energy from central office staff to secure an effective and efficient network. The provision of co-operative student transportation networks among boards has not always been possible because school districts either resist joint service arrangements, find them impractical, or cannot reach agreement with another jurisdiction.

At the time of the study, student transportation was administered through a number of different means throughout the province. Some boards owned their own fleet of buses, others contracted out for the service, and others co-operated with boards of a different denomination to provide a regional service. Of the 1,015 bus routes in the province, more than 400 were board owned and serviced, while the remainder were contracted through the public tendering process. Under the present system, boards that own their own fleet of buses receive 100 percent of the cost of running the service. All other boards contract private firms. These boards receive 90 percent of the cost of running that service. Placing the burden of financing the remaining 10 percent on these school boards is considered an incentive to economize and keep costs at a reasonable level.

With the exception of Fogo, Wabush, Labrador City, Happy Valley and Goose Bay (where any student may be bused between November 15 and April 15 each school year), school boards were reimbursed for transporting students who resided more than 1.6 km (one mile) from the school they attended. Approximately 80,000 students got to school by bus, representing some 61.5 percent of the total students in the province. Factoring out students in St. John's, most of whom were ineligible because the St. John's Transportation Commission has the exclusive right to operate transportation services in the city, approximately 66 percent of the remaining eligible students in the province used school buses to get to school.

Table 5. Schools, Teachers and Enrolment by School District, June 30, 1990: Model A.

| School District | Schools | Tchrs[1] | Total | %Rural | Small | %Small | T.P.R.[2] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Vinland-Straits | 32 | 247 | 3,637 | 100.0 | 1,457 | 40.1 | 72.1 |
| Deer Lake | 26 | 274 | 4,021 | 83.3 | 1,406 | 34.9 | 71.2 |
| Green Bay Int. | 23 | 203 | 3,161 | 100.0 | 973 | 30.8 | 67.4 |
| Exploit's Valley | 19 | 266 | 4,005 | 19.1 | 223 | 5.6 | 69.5 |
| Notre Dame Int. | 13 | 204 | 2,954 | 100.0 | 377 | 12.8 | 71.8 |
| Terra Nova Int. | 29 | 494 | 7,709 | 78.0 | 681 | 8.8 | 66.9 |
| Bon/Tri/Pla Int. | 21 | 353 | 6,255 | 100.0 | 854 | 13.7 | 59.1 |
| Avalon North Int. | 38 | 506 | 8,683 | 79.8 | 318 | 3.7 | 61.0 |
| Avalon Consolidated | 27 | 632 | 11,427 | 3.7 | - | - | 58.7 |
| Burin Peninsula | 14 | 199 | 3,239 | 100.0 | 424 | 13.1 | 64.5 |
| Bay d'Espoir Int. | 12 | 126 | 1,691 | 100.0 | 1,255 | 74.2 | 78.2 |
| Port aux Basques | 13 | 142 | 2,374 | 41.4 | 438 | 18.4 | 61.6 |
| Bay of Islands Int. | 19 | 379 | 6,320 | 26.1 | 608 | 9.6 | 62.1 |
| Labrador East Int. | 12 | 168 | 2,205 | 43.0 | 307 | 13.9 | 80.8 |
| Labrador West Int. | 5 | 115 | 1,923 | 0.0 | - | - | 61.1 |
| Con. Bay South Int. | 9 | 183 | 3,480 | 0.0 | 7 | 0.2 | 55.5 |
| Burin Peninsula R.C. | 14 | 255 | 4,060 | 85.1 | 1,230 | 30.3 | 65.5 |
| Con. Bay Centre RC | 8 | 97 | 1,665 | 100.0 | - | - | 60.4 |
| Con. Bay North RC | 11 | 146 | 2,444 | 54.5 | 286 | 11.7 | 62.2 |
| Exploit's/White Bay | 14 | 171 | 2,551 | 32.5 | 559 | 21.9 | 69.5 |
| Ferryland RC | 12 | 122 | 2,062 | 84.8 | 45 | 2.2 | 62.9 |
| Gander/Bonavista RC | 15 | 164 | 2,467 | 75.6 | 547 | 22.2 | 70.0 |
| Humber/St. Barbe RC | 21 | 243 | 4,016 | 39.3 | 611 | 15.2 | 63.5 |
| Labrador RC | 9 | 200 | 2,882 | 22.5 | 796 | 27.6 | 73.4 |
| Pla.-St. Mary's RC | 17 | 202 | 3,213 | 100.0 | 660 | 20.5 | 66.5 |
| Appalachia RC | 20 | 364 | 5,363 | 69.1 | 248 | 7.3 | 70.5 |
| St. John's RC | 40 | 1,044 | 19,441 | 3.2 | - | - | 56.7 |
| Pentecostal | 43 | 395 | 6,560 | 68.0 | 2,014 | 30.7 | 63.9 |
| Seventh Day Adventist | 7 | 26 | 301 | 8.3 | 206 | 68.4 | 89.7 |
| **Total Province** | **543** | **7,920** | **130,109** | **50.7** | **16,621** | **12.8** | **63.9** |

Notes: [1]Includes full-time and part-time. [2]Teacher-pupil ratio (teachers per 1,000 pupils).
Source: Department of Education, *Education Statistics: Elementary-Secondary*, March 1990; and various databases.

## Table 6. Academic Allocations by School District, Model A.

| | | | | | | School Staff | | | | | | Central Office | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School District | Basic | Guid. | Lib. | Small | Mean | Native | French | Spec Ed | Total | Prin. | Supt. | Asst. | Co-ord | Total | Alloc |
| 1 Vinland Int. | 72.1 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 11.8 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 12.4 | 103.7 | 4.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 118.2 |
| 2 Strait of Belle Isle Int. | 86.1 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 10.0 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 14.9 | 119.0 | 8.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 137.0 |
| 3 Deer Lake/ St Barbe | 174.9 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 21.1 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 28.9 | 237.0 | 13.5 | 2.0 | 4.0 | 14.0 | 20.0 | 270.5 |
| 4 Green Bay Int. | 137.5 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 14.6 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 23.7 | 186.1 | 10.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 206.6 |
| 5 Exploits Valley Int. | 174.2 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 28.0 | 213.6 | 12.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 236.1 |
| 6 Notre Dame Int. | 128.5 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 5.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 20.7 | 160.7 | 9.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 179.7 |
| 7 Terra Nova Int. | 271.2 | 6.2 | 6.2 | 5.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 43.7 | 332.6 | 17.0 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 8.0 | 13.0 | 362.6 |
| 8 Cape Freels Int. | 64.1 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 5.0 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 11.1 | 85.1 | 4.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 99.1 |
| 9 Bon-Tri-Placentia Int. | 272.1 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 12.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 43.8 | 341.2 | 17.0 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 8.0 | 13.0 | 371.2 |
| 10 Avalon North Int. | 377.7 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 4.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 60.8 | 460.6 | 24.5 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 501.1 |
| 11 Avalon Consolidated | 497.1 | 11.4 | 11.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 62.8 | 582.8 | 28.5 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 627.3 |
| 12 Burin Peninsula Int. | 140.9 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 6.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 22.7 | 176.4 | 10.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 196.4 |
| 13 Bay D'Espoir Int. | 73.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 18.8 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 12.7 | 112.4 | 5.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 127.9 |
| 14 Port aux Basques Int. | 103.3 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 6.6 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 17.8 | 134.4 | 7.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 151.4 |
| 15 Bay of Islands Int. | 274.9 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 9.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 44.2 | 340.9 | 18.5 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 8.0 | 13.0 | 372.4 |
| 16 Labrador East Int. | 95.9 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 4.6 | 2.0 | 25.2 | 0.0 | 16.5 | 148.7 | 7.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 165.7 |
| 17 Labrador West Int. | 83.7 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 13.5 | 101.0 | 5.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 116.0 |
| 18 Conception Bay South Int. | 151.4 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 24.4 | 182.8 | 8.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 201.3 |
| 19 Bay St. George RC | 85.7 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 13.8 | 104.8 | 6.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 121.3 |
| 20 Burin Peninsula RC | 176.6 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 18.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 28.4 | 231.6 | 11.0 | 1.0 | 3.0 | 7.0 | 11.0 | 253.6 |
| 21 Conception Bay Centre RC | 72.4 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 11.7 | 87.4 | 5.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 102.9 |
| 22 Conception Bay North RC | 106.3 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 4.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 17.1 | 132.6 | 9.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 151.6 |
| 23 Exploits-White Bay RC | 111.0 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 8.4 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 19.1 | 145.6 | 8.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 163.6 |
| 24 Ferryland RC | 89.7 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 0.7 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 15.5 | 112.0 | 5.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 127.5 |
| 25 Gander-Bonavista RC | 107.3 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 8.2 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 18.5 | 141.0 | 9.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 160.0 |
| 26 Humber-St. Barbe RC | 174.7 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 9.2 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 30.1 | 224.0 | 12.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 246.0 |
| 27 Labrador RC | 125.4 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 11.9 | 0.0 | 17.4 | 2.4 | 20.2 | 183.0 | 8.5 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 201.5 |
| 28 Placentia-St. Mary's RC | 139.8 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 9.9 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 24.1 | 182.2 | 9.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 201.2 |
| 29 Port au Port RC | 147.6 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 7.0 | 23.8 | 188.9 | 10.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 208.9 |
| 30 St. John's RC | 845.7 | 19.4 | 19.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 106.9 | 991.5 | 47.0 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 1,054.4 |
| 31 Pentecostal Assemblies | 285.4 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 30.2 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 49.2 | 382.1 | 24.0 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 9.0 | 14.0 | 420.1 |
| 32 Seventh-Day Adventist | 13.1 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.3 | 23.0 | 1.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 25.5 |
| Total | 5,659.8 | 130.1 | 130.1 | 249.3 | 42.0 | 44.8 | 9.4 | 883.1 | 7,148.6 | 377.0 | 32.0 | 82.0 | 239.0 | 353.0 | 7,878.5 |

Source: Department of Education, Teacher Allocation Database.

The total cost of transporting students was $27.8 million or 5.7 percent of the total current account expenditure of the Department of Education. Of that amount, $2.4 million was used to transport kindergarten students and $1.7 million was used to transport handicapped students. The average route was 16.6 km in length and cost $17,576 per contract.

### Summary of Costs

In 1989-90, operating funds for school boards came from two sources. Direct grants from government accounted for 93 percent of the total cost. These included grants for the operations and maintenance of schools and central offices, teachers' salaries, student transportation, textbooks and other special services and programs. The remaining 7 percent was raised locally. The main source of local funds was direct school taxation, which accounted for $27.5 million in 1989-90. Boards also raised money through local assessments, rentals and donations. Further, schools supplemented their operating costs through on-site fund raising such as chocolate bar sales, flea-markets, and walk-a-thons.

Operating grants were paid directly to school boards on a non-discriminatory basis, with each board receiving an equal per-pupil amount for the operation and maintenance of its schools. Other grants neutralize some of the inequities inherent in a per-pupil funding formula. One, for example, reimbursed those boards in which lighting and heating costs are higher than the provincial average. Another compensated school boards for school bus transportation costs above the provincial average transportation cost per pupil.

A summary of the operating expenditures is presented in Table 7. Because it is too cumbersome to show these numbers at the school district level, data are summarized by denominational jurisdiction. Additional analysis of the per-pupil expenditure by school district is presented later. Operating funds were disbursed under the following five general headings.

**Administration expenditures**. The operation and maintenance of central offices including the salaries and benefits of superintendents, business managers and other office support staff accounted for 3.5 percent ($18.2 million) of the total education expenditure. Some would argue that, because of accounting practices, this figure is arbitrarily low because some central office staff (e.g. Assistant Superintendent, Administration) were accounted for under instruction rather than administration categories. Of the total administration expenditure, 69.6 percent was spent on salaries and benefits.

**Instruction expenditures**. These are the instructional costs of operating schools, including the salaries and benefits of assistant superintendents, program co-ordinators, principals, and teachers, and other costs associated with instruction such as materials and supplies, teacher in-service training, conferences and travel. The provision of instruction is the *raison d'etre* of the education system, and it accounted for over 80 percent of the total cost. Of that amount, 96.8 percent was committed to salaries and benefits including (for some reason) those for school secretaries ($5.6 million). Instructional materials such as textbooks, resource materials, library supplies and teaching aids accounted for 1.7 percent of the total education expenditure.

**Operations and maintenance expenditures**. The operation and maintenance of schools, including the salaries and benefits of janitorial and secretarial services, equipment, repairs, snow clearing, heat and light, and municipal services, cost just under 9 percent ($45.6 million) of total expenditures. The two largest components were the salaries and benefits of janitorial and maintenance staff ($20.3 million), and heat and light ($12.8 million). Repairs and maintenance to buildings and equipment accounted for another $6.5 million.

**Pupil transportation expenditures**. The costs associated with the operation and maintenance of a board owned fleet of buses or the cost of contracting such services accounted for 5.7 percent ($29.4 million) of the total education expenditure. Over 43 percent ($12.8 million) of that cost was used to operate and maintain board owned fleets and approximately $2 million was committed for the transportation of students with special physical needs.

**Other expenditures**. Ancillary services such as teachers' residences and school cafeterias, and various interest expenses resulting from school construction, equipment purchase and vehicles consumed the remaining 1 percent of the total cost of education. The largest component ($4.7 million) was committed to interest on monies borrowed, in particular, for school construction.

Per-pupil costs, broken down for each of the major expenditure areas, are presented in Table 8. Several points are worthy of note: (1) the low per-pupil cost of administration for the Avalon Consolidated board ($85); (2) the high per-pupil cost of operating the Seventh-Day Adventist board ($5,923), particularly to administer it ($440); (3) the high costs for busing within the Notre Dame and Humber-St. Barbe boards; and (4) the high cost of operating and maintaining schools for the Avalon Consolidated board ($405).

Table 7. School Board Expenditures by Denominational Jurisdiction, 1989-90.

| | Current Expenditures | | Integrated Districts | Catholic Districts | Pentecostal District | SDA District | Total Province |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Administration Expenditures | | | | | | |
| 51 | 11 | Salaries & Wages (Gross) | 6,541,060 | 4,528,088 | 521,213 | 84,977 | 11,675,338 |
| | 12 | Employee Benefits | 526,946 | 401,184 | 46,392 | 12,222 | 986,744 |
| | 13 | Office Supplies | 242,543 | 210,726 | 22,991 | 1,737 | 477,997 |
| | 14 | Office Furniture & Equipment | 22,974 | 64,064 | 6,242 | | 93,280 |
| | 15 | Postage | 145,136 | 66,135 | 15,079 | 1,121 | 227,471 |
| | 16 | Telephone | 377,084 | 251,075 | 20,795 | 4,538 | 653,492 |
| | 17 | Office Equipment Rentals and Repairs | 243,316 | 150,356 | 20,116 | | 413,788 |
| | 18 | Bank Charges | 51,058 | 87,181 | 98 | 905 | 139,242 |
| | 19 | Electricity | 187,454 | 68,624 | 3,062 | | 259,140 |
| | 21 | Fuel | 16,861 | 28,356 | 7,344 | | 52,561 |
| | 22 | Insurance | 19,120 | 42,990 | 300 | 122 | 62,532 |
| | 23 | Repairs & Maintenance (Office Building) | 113,609 | 75,837 | 1,373 | | 190,819 |
| | 23 | Travel | 477,072 | 386,462 | 53,278 | 6,593 | 923,405 |
| | 25 | Board Meeting Expenses | 127,037 | 133,782 | 28,050 | 1,206 | 290,075 |
| | 26 | Election Expenses | 59,732 | 28,922 | 18,374 | | 107,028 |
| | 27 | Professional Fees | 255,582 | 135,207 | 12,912 | | 403,701 |
| | 28 | Advertising | 163,702 | 104,289 | 1,082 | 385 | 269,458 |
| | 29 | Membership Dues | 170,252 | 137,614 | 15,627 | 125 | 323,618 |
| | 31 | Municipal Service Fees | 7,197 | 3,209 | | | 10,406 |
| | 32 | Rental of Office Space | 48,339 | 57,049 | | | 105,388 |
| | 33 | Relocation Expenses | 26,300 | 7,799 | | 6,962 | 41,061 |
| | 34 | Miscellaneous | 241,455 | 248,745 | 3,881 | 4,364 | 498,445 |
| | Total Administration Expenditures | | 10,063,829 | 7,217,694 | 798,209 | 125,257 | 18,204,989 |

| | | Instruction Expenditures | | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 52 | 10 | Instructional Salaries (Gross) | | | | | | |
| | 11 | Teachers' Salaries | - Regular | 208,005,624 | 137,215,142 | 17,262,240 | 1,128,059 | 363,611,065 |
| | 12 | | - Substitute | 6,096,079 | 5,948,951 | 547,379 | 48,322 | 12,640,731 |
| | 13 | | - Board Paid | 866,832 | 730,565 | 41,124 | | 1,638,521 |
| | 14 | Augmentation | | 730,173 | 569,827 | | | 1,300,000 |
| | 15 | Employee Benefits | | 11,183,414 | 8,955,087 | 1,534,881 | | 21,673,382 |
| | 16 | School Secretaries | - Salaries | 2,779,515 | 2,022,956 | 202,259 | | 5,004,730 |
| | 17 | | - Benefits | 301,619 | 269,623 | 25,096 | | 596,338 |
| | 18 | Other (Specify) | | 363,250 | 507,053 | | | 870,303 |
| | | | | 230,326,506 | 156,219,204 | 19,612,979 | 1,176,381 | 407,335,070 |
| 52 | 40 | Instructional Materials | | | | | | |
| | 41 | General Supplies | | 1,651,249 | 1,109,321 | 46,325 | 2,501 | 2,809,396 |
| | 42 | Library Resource Materials | | 864,876 | 474,676 | 65,061 | 3,974 | 1,408,587 |
| | 43 | Teaching Aids | | 1,706,537 | 1,289,951 | 210,681 | 35,361 | 3,242,530 |
| | 44 | Textbooks | | 620,026 | 477,032 | 95,549 | 2,161 | 1,194,768 |
| | | | | 4,842,688 | 3,350,980 | 417,616 | 43,997 | 8,655,281 |
| 52 | 60 | Instructional Furniture & Equipment | | | | | | |
| | 61 | Replacement | | 636,801 | 300,058 | 48,639 | 730 | 986,228 |
| | 62 | Rentals and Repairs | | 468,153 | 302,924 | 48,885 | 6,535 | 826,497 |
| | | | | 1,104,954 | 602,982 | 97,524 | 7,265 | 1,812,725 |
| 52 | 80 | Instructional Staff Travel | | | | | | |
| | 81 | Program Co-ordinators | | 418,382 | 244,733 | 41,215 | | 704,330 |
| | 82 | Teachers' Travel | | 187,776 | 129,120 | 16,214 | | 333,110 |
| | 83 | In-service and Conferences | | 448,351 | 238,022 | 60,442 | 13,907 | 760,722 |
| | | | | 1,054,509 | 611,875 | 117,871 | 13,907 | 1,798,162 |
| 52 | 90 | Other Instructional Costs | | | | | | |
| | 91 | Postage and Stationery | | 341,517 | 42,519 | 11,274 | 452 | 395,762 |
| | 92 | Miscellaneous | | 293,765 | 404,203 | 333 | 3,109 | 701,410 |
| | | | | 635,282 | 446,722 | 11,607 | 3,561 | 1,097,172 |
| | | Total Instructional Expenditures | | 237,963,939 | 161,231,763 | 20,257,597 | 1,245,111 | 420,698,410 |

|  |  | Operations & Maintenance Expenditures - Schools | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 53 | 11 | Salaries - Janitorial | 7,610,952 | 6,384,005 | 564,285 | 39,957 | 14,599,199 |
|  | 12 | - Maintenance | 2,160,034 | 1,201,507 | 175,415 |  | 3,536,956 |
|  | 13 | Employee Benefits | 1,057,241 | 962,907 | 102,775 | 3,952 | 2,126,875 |
|  | 14 | Electricity | 5,348,279 | 3,621,795 | 487,732 | 34,535 | 9,492,341 |
|  | 15 | Fuel | 1,954,886 | 1,208,157 | 165,069 | 8,765 | 3,336,877 |
|  | 16 | Municipal Service Fees | 231,939 | 165,103 | 13,977 | 787 | 411,806 |
|  | 17 | Telephone | 731,153 | 460,667 | 81,620 | 6,199 | 1,279,639 |
|  | 18 | Vehicle Operating and Travel | 206,361 | 147,394 | 25,701 |  | 379,456 |
|  | 19 | Janitorial Supplies | 770,901 | 524,225 | 108,240 | 7,986 | 1,411,352 |
|  | 21 | Janitorial Equipment | 57,962 | 30,427 | 7,001 |  | 95,390 |
|  | 22 | Repairs & Maintenance - Buildings | 3,637,409 | 1,908,153 | 779,775 | 11,674 | 6,337,011 |
|  | 23 | - Equipment | 151,576 | 3,597 | 2,094 |  | 157,267 |
|  | 24 | Contracted Services - Janitorial | 711,554 | 260,894 | 8,287 |  | 980,735 |
|  | 25 | Snow Clearing | 449,833 | 383,259 | 29,830 | 2,074 | 864,996 |
|  | 26 | Rentals | 15,022 | 447,566 |  |  | 462,588 |
|  | 27 | Other (Specify) | 17,196 | 94,339 | 500 |  | 112,035 |
|  |  | Total Operations & Maintenance | 25,112,298 | 17,803,995 | 2,552,301 | 115,929 | 45,584,523 |

|  |  | Pupil Transportation Expenditures | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 54 | 10 | Operation & Maintenance of Board Owned Fleet |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 11 | Salaries - Administration | 252,764 | 116,957 |  |  | 369,721 |
|  | 12 | - Drivers and Mechanics | 4,187,272 | 1,700,020 |  | 45,289 | 5,932,581 |
|  | 13 | Employee Benefits | 478,899 | 199,022 |  | 7,058 | 684,979 |
|  | 14 | Debt Repayment - Interest | 749,958 | 431,500 |  | 9,096 | 1,190,554 |
|  | 15 | - Principal | 912,456 | 532,163 |  | 13,451 | 1,458,070 |
|  | 16 | Bank Charges | 2,657 | 2,521 |  |  | 5,178 |
|  | 17 | Gas and Oil | 1,106,696 | 475,072 |  | 20,978 | 1,602,746 |
|  | 18 | Licenses | 92,033 | 36,181 |  | 1,027 | 129,241 |
|  | 19 | Insurance | 100,607 | 40,477 |  | 2,310 | 143,394 |
|  | 21 | Repairs & Maintenance - Fleet | 542,536 | 242,210 |  | 20,063 | 804,809 |
|  | 22 | - Building | 24,445 | 9,480 |  |  | 33,925 |
|  | 23 | Tires and Tubes | 131,071 | 47,874 |  | 2,531 | 181,476 |
|  | 24 | Heat and Light | 41,268 | 20,561 |  |  | 61,829 |
|  | 25 | Municipal Service | 705 | 5,237 |  |  | 5,942 |
|  | 26 | Snow Clearing | 9,190 | 9,630 |  |  | 18,820 |
|  | 27 | Office Supplies | 17,362 | 4,350 |  |  | 21,712 |
|  | 29 | Travel | 18,067 | 5,607 |  |  | 23,674 |
|  | 31 | Professional Fees | 13,695 | 6,338 |  |  | 20,033 |
|  | 32 | Miscellaneous | 31,497 | 23,729 |  | (8) | 55,218 |
|  | 33 | Telephone | 15,930 | 6,255 |  |  | 22,185 |
|  | 34 | Capital Expenditure Out of Current | 23,238 | 0 |  |  | 23,238 |
|  |  |  | 8,752,346 | 3,915,184 |  | 121,795 | 12,789,325 |
| 54 | 40 | Contracted Services |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 41 | Regular Transportation | 8,098,340 | 5,904,553 | 739,509 |  | 14,742,402 |
|  | 42 | Handicapped | 777,887 | 1,046,916 | 39,958 | 251 | 1,865,012 |
|  |  |  | 8,876,227 | 6,951,469 | 779,467 | 251 | 16,607,414 |
|  |  | Total Pupil Transportation | 17,628,573 | 10,866,653 | 779,467 | 122,046 | 29,396,739 |

| | Other Expenditures | | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 55 | 10 | Ancillary Services | | | | | |
| | 11 | Operation of Teachers' Residences | 259,302 | 329,498 | 6,507 | | 595,307 |
| | 31 | Cafeterias | 174,502 | 22,660 | | | 197,162 |
| | 32 | Other (Specify) | 205,022 | 0 | | | 205,022 |
| | | | 638,826 | 352,158 | 6,507 | 0 | 997,491 |
| 56 | 10 | Interest Expense | | | | | |
| | 12 | Capital | | | | | |
| | | School Construction | 2,330,040 | 539,990 | 280,456 | 16,266 | 3,166,752 |
| | | Equipment | 9,741 | 0 | | | 9,741 |
| | | Service Vehicles | 2,107 | 515 | | | 2,622 |
| | | Other | 35,389 | 21,632 | | 30,393 | 87,414 |
| | | | 2,377,277 | 562,137 | 280,456 | 46,659 | 3,266,529 |
| | 13 | Current - Operating Loans | 128,523 | 1,292,364 | | | 1,420,887 |
| | 14 | - Supplier Interest Charges | 19,065 | 25,239 | | | 44,304 |
| | | | 147,588 | 1,317,603 | 0 | 0 | 1,465,191 |
| | | Total Interest Expense | 2,524,865 | 1,879,740 | 280,456 | 46,659 | 4,731,720 |
| 57 | 10 | Miscellaneous Expenses | | | | | |
| 57 | 11 | Miscellaneous (Specify) | 9,516 | 57,175 | | | 66,691 |
| | | Total Current Expenditures | 293,941,846 | 199,409,178 | 24,674,537 | 1,655,002 | 519,680,563 |

Note: Some totals may not add due to rounding.

Table 8. Per-pupil Expenditures by Type of Service by School District, 1989-90.

| School District | Admin. | Instr. | Operations | Trans. | Other | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 Vinland Int. | 199 | 2967 | 308 | 263 | 100 | 3837 |
| 2 Strait of Belle Isle Int. | 158 | 3147 | 304 | 282 | 59 | 3950 |
| 3 Deer Lake/St. Barbe | 124 | 2974 | 265 | 154 | 90 | 3607 |
| 4 Green Bay Int. | 130 | 3063 | 247 | 337 | 69 | 3846 |
| 5 Exploits Valley Int. | 135 | 3200 | 311 | 356 | 130 | 4132 |
| 6 Notre Dame Int. | 128 | 3212 | 314 | 639 | 31 | 4324 |
| 7 Terra Nova Int. | 105 | 2929 | 285 | 317 | 92 | 3728 |
| 8 Cape Freels Int. | 166 | 2989 | 307 | 209 | 48 | 3719 |
| 9 Bon-Tri-Placentia Int. | 115 | 2512 | 251 | 248 | 91 | 3217 |
| 10 Avalon North Int. | 115 | 2864 | 274 | 204 | 48 | 3505 |
| 11 Avalon Consolidated | 85 | 2795 | 405 | 114 | 134 | 3533 |
| 12 Burin Peninsula Int. | 143 | 2952 | 250 | 231 | 160 | 3736 |
| 13 Bay D'Espoir Int. | 189 | 3424 | 300 | 136 | 128 | 4177 |
| 14 Port aux Basques Int. | 132 | 2621 | 288 | 183 | 14 | 3238 |
| 15 Bay of Islands Int. | 78 | 2842 | 348 | 20 | 85 | 3373 |
| 16 Labrador East Int. | 203 | 3815 | 431 | 320 | 74 | 4843 |
| 17 Labrador West Int. | 226 | 3730 | 303 | 192 | 95 | 4546 |
| 18 Conception Bay South Int. | 121 | 2745 | 249 | 181 | 28 | 3324 |
| 19 Bay St. George RC | 162 | 3106 | 375 | 286 | 104 | 4033 |
| 20 Burin Peninsula RC | 118 | 2802 | 292 | 229 | 52 | 3493 |
| 21 Conception Bay Centre RC | 161 | 2911 | 322 | 266 | 25 | 3685 |
| 22 Conception Bay North RC | 158 | 2952 | 312 | 245 | 1 | 3668 |
| 23 Exploits-White Bay RC | 146 | 3095 | 351 | 22 | 20 | 3634 |
| 24 Ferryland RC | 124 | 2958 | 335 | 268 | 61 | 3746 |
| 25 Gander-Bonavista RC | 126 | 3049 | 306 | 145 | 38 | 3664 |
| 26 Humber-St. Barbe RC | 115 | 2934 | 342 | 465 | 25 | 3881 |
| 27 Labrador RC | 224 | 3792 | 353 | 246 | 197 | 4812 |
| 28 Placentia-St. Mary's RC | 128 | 2986 | 299 | 223 | 31 | 3667 |
| 29 Port au Port RC | 132 | 3175 | 305 | 197 | 27 | 3836 |
| 30 St. John's RC | 97 | 2659 | 337 | 129 | 99 | 3321 |
| 31 Pentecostal Assemblies | 103 | 2704 | 318 | 114 | 50 | 3289 |
| 32 SDA | 440 | 4518 | 392 | 428 | 145 | 5923 |
| Total | 123 | 2924 | 318 | 209 | 78 | 3652 |

Source: Department of Education, Teacher Allocation Database.

## MODEL B - A Rational Denominational System

Term 2 of the Commission's Terms of Reference required it to "examine the extent to which school districts and schools can be further consolidated and costs associated with such consolidation". There are two contexts under which consolidation could be examined, and the Commission considered both. The first context is the existing denominational system (considered in Model A) and the second is a context unconstrained by separate and independent denominational boards (Models C and D). This model examines consolidation within the first context, estimating the potential for consolidation within the denominational system and measuring the savings that could result.

To compare it with the existing system (Model A), Model B thus establishes an efficient, "slimmed-down" denominational system. In other words, it depicts what the existing system would look like and cost at a maximum level of consolidation and sharing among schools and school districts. Within this framework, the number of school boards would be reduced to minimum levels and schools would be consolidated, based upon acceptable parameters for school size, reasonable conditions for student transportation and demonstrated need. Model B, however, maintains the same denominational separation which exists under Model A.

### District Organization

To determine the most efficient number of districts and their boundaries, several investigative strategies were employed. First was a review of research related to district organization, the findings of which were presented earlier. Second, specific reports on the reorganization of the local denominational systems were examined. Third, with assistance from expert panels, proposals on the number and boundaries of school districts were developed and finalized. Finally, sensitivity analyses were performed to help test and validate the findings and conclusions.

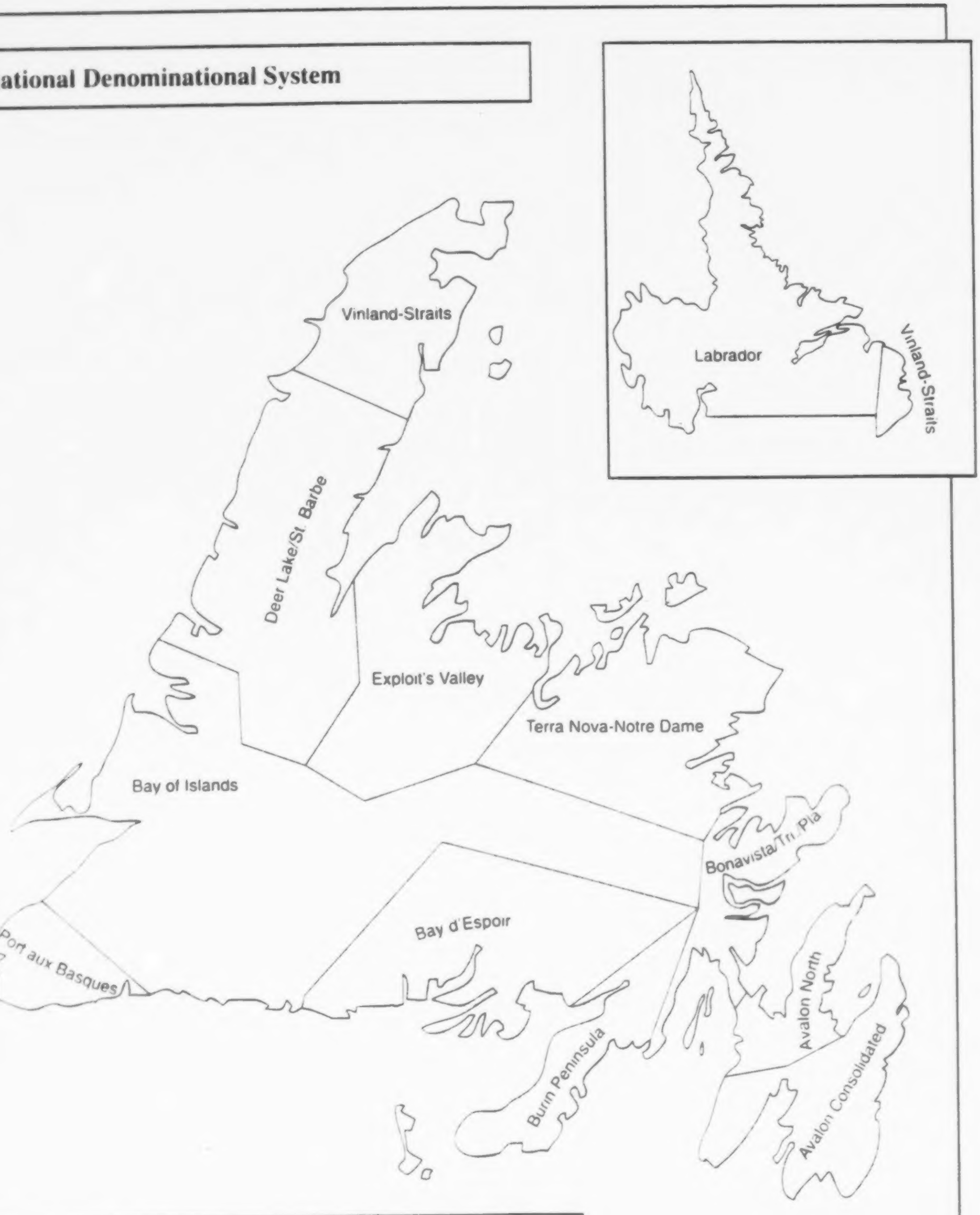
A comprehensive review of integrated school districts was completed by Roebothan and Warren in 1987. That report focused on the need for consolidation of specific school districts in the face of declining enrolments and spiralling operating costs. A number of the changes proposed in their report had already been acted upon at the time of this study, such as the consolidation of Deer Lake with St. Barbe South, Cape Freels with Terra Nova, and Strait of Belle Isle with Vinland. Other areas identified for re-examination at a later date included Labrador, Port aux Basques, Bay d'Espoir, Conception Bay South, and central Newfoundland.

One of the more forward looking studies was commissioned for the Catholic Education Council. Treslan (1988) revealed the need to alter the structure of the existing denominational system and replace it with a streamlined inter-denominational prototype. The report recommended 12 educational coterminous regions with a dual administration each containing separate, integrated and Roman Catholic districts. This report, however, was rejected by the Council and a second study was commissioned (Collins, 1989). Collins also suggested a number of changes, including the consideration of a model of systematic regional co-operation.

Verge (1989) in a study of the Pentecostal system also advocated a spirit of inter-denominational co-operation and innovative structural change. While the Pentecostal system with only one board cannot consolidate further, talks have taken place about the potential for expansion.

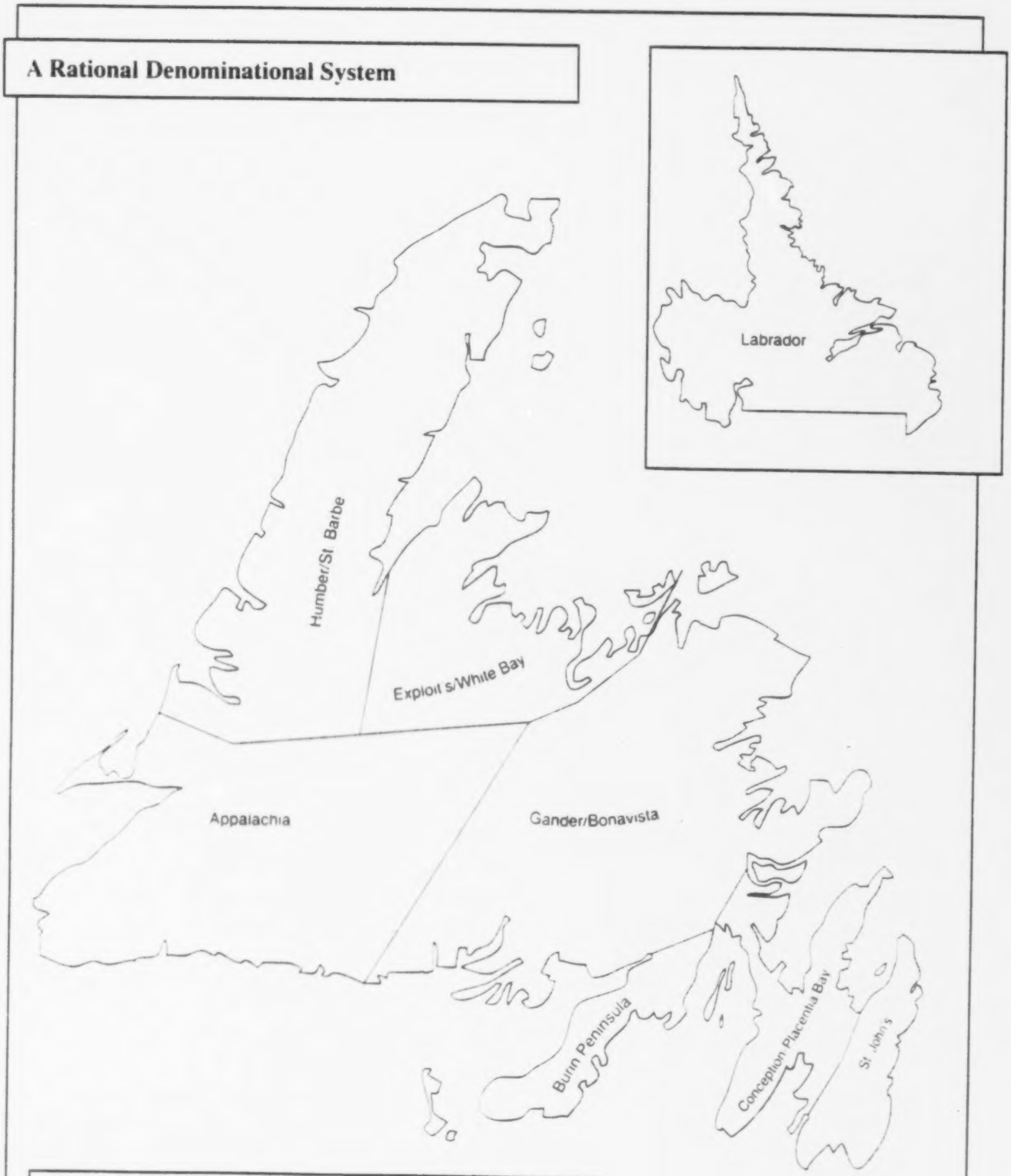
Based on the findings of these studies and its other research, Model B condenses the 29 districts in place at the end of the school year 1990 to 19 denominational districts. As a result, the integrated system is reduced from 16 to ten districts, the Roman Catholic system is reduced from 11 to seven and the Pentecostal and Seventh Day Adventist systems remain as they were (see Figure 7 and 8).

## A Rational Denominational System


Labrador
Vinland-Straits
Vinland-Straits
Deer Lake/St. Barbe
Exploit's Valley
Terra Nova-Notre Dame
Bay of Islands
Bonavista/Tri./Pla
Bay d'Espoir
Port aux Basques
Avalon North
Burin Peninsula
Avalon Consolidated

**Model B — Integrated School Districts.**

A Rational Denominational System


Labrador
Humber/St Barbe
Exploits/White Bay
Appalachia
Gander/Bonavista
Burin Peninsula
Conception Placentia Bay
St. John's

Model B — Roman Catholic School Districts.

A complete list of the Model B districts along with the enrolment, schools, average school size and enrolment in small schools is presented in Table 9. All data are presented prior to any decisions regarding the consolidation of schools and the allocation of teaching units. Of particular note is the diversity in size among districts, ranging from 2,882 in Labrador Roman Catholic to 21,503 in St. John's Roman Catholic. The average district under this model has 6,848 students in 29 schools, and the average school size is just under 240 students. The Seventh-Day Adventist board has, on average, very small schools (43 students) with 68.4 percent of its students enrolled in provincially funded small schools.

## School Organization

As with district consolidation, examination of the issue of school consolidation involved an extensive investigative process. First, the Commission undertook a review of research related to the factors critical to school success followed by an exhaustive consultation process in which focus groups were held throughout the province.

Table 9. Enrolment, Schools, Average School Size, and Small School Enrolment by School District, No Consolidation, Model B, 1989-90.

| School Board | Enrolment | Schools | Avg. Size | Small Enrol. | Small % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Vinland-Straits Int. | 3,637 | 32 | 113.7 | 1,457 | 40.1 |
| Deer Lake-St. Barbe Int. | 4,021 | 26 | 154.7 | 1,406 | 35.0 |
| Exploits Valley Int. | 8,857 | 54 | 164.0 | 2,451 | 27.7 |
| Terra Nova-Notre Dame Int. | 10,663 | 42 | 253.9 | 1,058 | 9.9 |
| Bon-Tri-Placentia Int. | 6,255 | 21 | 297.9 | 854 | 13.7 |
| Avalon North Int. | 8,683 | 38 | 228.5 | 318 | 3.7 |
| Avalon Consolidated | 14,907 | 36 | 414.1 | 7 | 0.0 |
| Burin Peninsula Int. | 3,239 | 14 | 231.4 | 424 | 13.1 |
| Bay of Islands Int. | 8,694 | 32 | 271.7 | 1,046 | 12.0 |
| Labrador Int. | 4,128 | 17 | 242.8 | 307 | 7.4 |
| Pentecostal Assemblies | 6,560 | 43 | 152.6 | 2,014 | 30.7 |
| Burin Peninsula RC | 4,060 | 14 | 290.0 | 1,230 | 30.3 |
| Conception-Placentia Bay RC | 7,322 | 36 | 203.4 | 946 | 12.9 |
| Exploits-White Bay RC | 5,018 | 29 | 173.0 | 1,106 | 22.0 |
| Humber-St. Barbe RC | 4,016 | 21 | 191.2 | 611 | 15.2 |
| Labrador RC | 2,882 | 9 | 320.2 | 796 | 27.6 |
| Appalachia RC | 5,363 | 20 | 268.2 | 339 | 6.3 |
| St. John's RC | 21,503 | 52 | 413.5 | 45 | 0.2 |
| Seventh-Day Adventist | 301 | 7 | 43.0 | 206 | 68.4 |
| Provincial Average | 6,848 | 29 | 239.6 | 875 | 376.3 |
| Total | 130,109 | 543 | - | 16,621 | - |

Second, with the assistance of expert panels, a set of criteria was established to guide the decision-making process, after which proposals on the number and location of schools were developed and finalized. Finally, sensitivity analyses were performed to help test and validate the findings and conclusions.

Measuring the potential for school consolidation required the establishment of a number of basic rules to guide the process: specifically, the conditions under which a given school would be consolidated with another. The establishment of these rules or criteria thus ensured that the decisions to consolidate schools in some areas but not in others were always objective.

As noted, these rules were derived only after an extensive literature review, and numerous focus groups and expert panels. From the beginning, it was clear that any set of rules would have to be derived from four essential considerations: size of school, program requirements, distances between the core and fringe populations, and availability of alternative services. Consolidation would only be accepted if all conditions identified under the rules were met. Given these conditions, rules were formulated to guide the decision-making process (see Table 10).

Table 10. Criteria for the Further Consolidation of Schools within the Denominational System.

Consolidation of one school with another was considered:

1. if the schools being considered were of the same denominational constituency;
2. if the schools being considered offered the same type of program (e.g. primary, high, all-grade);
3. if, at the primary and elementary levels, there was no other similar school within 10 kms;
4. at the secondary level, if there was no other similar school within 30 km;
5. if the combined enrolments in both schools did not exceed the identified ceiling;
6. for a primary or elementary school, if either had an enrolment less than 30 students per stream per grade and fewer than three streams (an enrolment ceiling of 420 students was adopted);
7. for a junior high school, if either had an enrolment less than 30 students per stream per grade and fewer than four streams (an enrolment ceiling of 270 students was adopted); and
8. for a senior high school, if either school was not of sufficient size to offer a wide and comprehensive curriculum and a complement of extra-curricular activities (an enrolment ceiling of 900 students was adopted).

Applying the rules was more problematic than establishing them. The greatest difficulties surrounded the unavailability of data to support the decisions and the lack of a sufficient understanding of the local political environment. Admittedly, some exceptions were made. This was particularly evident where three school consolidation was involved. In such cases, either of two scenarios could occur: (1) all three could be consolidated into one school, or (2) they could be reorganized into two more-efficient and effective schools.

Consolidation did not necessarily mean the elimination of one or more schools. In some cases it meant, for example, simple restructuring to introduce various scale economies or to accommodate a more effective means of resource allocation. It might mean, for instance, that an all-grade school would become an elementary school and the secondary students would be bused elsewhere.

Behind every decision was the realization that creative and innovative planning would be needed to safeguard the educational and social needs of all students. It should also be noted that these decisions were made without the use of school-level projections; however, much of the macro-level work in this field (Press, 1990; Brown, 1991), points to a rapidly shrinking rural population. In summary, because of declining enrolments, much of the consolidation identified here will be inevitable at some future date, no matter what actions are taken as a result of this Commission's report.

Table 11 is a representation of what the various systems would look like after school consolidation. In this model, the total number of schools has been reduced by 32 from its original 543. The average school size has risen only marginally from 240 to 255 students.

The list of potential consolidations is presented in Table 12. It involves 31 sets of communities which match the rules and in which two or more schools could be consolidated. The 68 schools identified represent 31 of the most obvious cases where further consolidation should be considered. Since this was largely a hypothetical exercise, the specific schools which should be closed and those which should remain open were not identified, as that level of detail was not required. Actual decisions would have to be based upon the size, age and condition of the existing schools, location and growth of the population, social and economic viability of the communities involved, and many more factors. In some cases, neither school could logically accommodate the other and additional space would have to be made available.

While 511 schools would still remain open throughout the province it should be noted that this situation would continue only for the short term. Declining enrolments will likely guarantee that an additional 50-100 schools will be forced to close their doors by the end of this century. The implications of these changes will be profound to say the least.

Table 13 presents the allocations for teachers, principals and central office personnel for Model B. Based on the same allocation policies used for Model A, this model shows a reduction of 172.6 staffing units. Under Model B, there are 7,096 teachers, 372 principals, and 238 central office staff. The greatest differences between Models A and B are the losses of 84 program co-ordinators and 17 assistant superintendents because of the consolidation of central offices. Of the teaching units lost, 26 are units under the *mean* allocation formula and 18 are small school units.

Table 11. Background Information by Denominational Constituency, with Consolidations, Model B.[1]

| Background Data | Integrated Districts | Roman Catholic Districts | Pentecostal Assemblies District | Seventh Day Adventist District | Combined Model B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School districts | 10 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 19 |
| Average school district size | 7,308 | 7,166 | 6,560 | 301 | 6,848 |
| Schools | 289 | 172 | 43 | 7 | 511 |
| Average school size | 253 | 292 | 153 | 43 | 255 |
| Total enrolment | 73,084 | 50,164 | 6,560 | 301 | 130,109 |
| Percent total enrolment | 56.2% | 38.6% | 5.0% | 0.2% | 100.0% |
| Superintendents | 10 | 7 | 1 | - | 18 |
| Asst. superintendents | 39 | 22 | 4 | - | 65 |
| Program co-ordinators | 89 | 56 | 9 | 1 | 155 |
| Teachers | 4,188 | 2,846 | 406 | 25 | 7,465 |
| Total Staff | 4,326 | 2,931 | 420 | 26 | 7,703 |
| Pupil/teacher ratio | 17.5 | 17.6 | 16.2 | 12.3 | 17.4 |
| Teacher/pupil ratio (tchs/1000 pupils) | 57.3 | 56.7 | 61.9 | 81.4 | 57.4 |

[1] Based on data for the 1989-90 school year.

### Student Transportation

Consolidation under a distinct denominational system could not happen without considerable cost. Disruption of teaching staff and families, increased work-load, less flexibility, and the loss of community identity and singularity are some of the potential negative effects. However, one of the most significant costs of consolidation is the increase in student transportation expenses. The majority of the consolidations identified involve two or more communities and this implies that considerable student busing would have to be introduced, nullifying at least some of the financial gains achieved.

Any future decisions to consolidate along denominational lines will thus inevitably be based on programs and other needs rather than financial expediency, and the financial arguments are least likely to hold up to public scrutiny. However, factors such as declining enrolments, loss of teaching units, dilution of programs, reduction of services, and poor achievement levels will lead to the inevitable debate over consolidation if other changes do not occur first.

### Summary of Costs

Comparative expenditures by individual account items for both a sample district and for the province as a whole are presented in Table 8.11. The data are summarized for each of the denominational constituencies as well for the province under Models B and A. Showing individual boards would be misleading and, as a result, these have not been included. Comparison of both provincial summaries does provide a clear depiction of a rationalized denominational structure and the potential savings that could be achieved as a result.

**Administration expenditures**.The cost of operating and maintaining school board offices ($16.5 million) accounts for 3.2 percent of the total education expenditure. Just under $2 million savings were realized in this category compared to Model A. Most of this was accomplished through superintendents' salaries and certain economies of scale achieved through the closing of a number of buildings. Of the total administration expenditure, 68.8 percent went on salaries and benefits.

**Instruction expenditures**. The provision of instruction ($415.6 million) accounts for 81.0 percent of the total cost, an increase of 1.2 percent of the total over Model A. Of the total amount 96.8 percent would be committed to salaries and benefits, and 2.1 percent would be spent on instructional materials such as textbooks, resource materials, library supplies and teaching aids. Over $5.4 million in savings in instructional salaries are identified, most of which was for central office personnel.

**Operations and maintenance expenditures**. Almost 4 percent ($1.7 million) savings could be achieved through the consolidation of schools. Of that amount, approximately $800,000 would be saved through salaries and the remainder through the closure of buildings. The two largest components are the salaries and benefits of janitorial and maintenance staff ($19.5 million), and heat and light ($12.4 million). Repairs and maintenance to buildings and equipment account for another $6.3 million.

**Pupil transportation expenditures**. While other budget items decrease, the cost of student transportation increases under Model B. Compared to Model A ($29.4 million), the cost of busing increases by $1.6 million (5.6 percent). While the consolidation of schools within the denominational system does provide some gains, especially through salaries, significant gains are achieved only in selected regions. While consolidation within the denominational system leads to overall savings when looking at all the costs associated with the operation of schools, the area of student transportation remains problematic.

**Other expenditures**. The remaining one percent of the total cost of education, spent on various ancillary services and interest expenses, is not affected by the model and no savings are achieved. The largest component ($3.3 million), committed to interest on capital, would still exist under this model.

Table 8.9: Examples of Communities for Which Consolidation along Denominational Lines Is Recommended.

| Denomination | Community | School | Gds | No. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Integrated | Arnold's Cove | St. Michael's | K-12 | 317 |
| | Sunnyside | R. K. Gardner | K-12 | 213 |
| 2. Integrated | Badger's Quay | Bishop Meaden | K-7 | 214 |
| | Wesleyville | Wesleyville Mem | K-7 | 202 |
| | Newtown | Newtown Primary | K-3 | 32 |
| 3. Integrated | Bay de Verde | Tricon Elem | K-6 | 151 |
| | Old Perlican | John Hoskins Mem | K-6 | 140 |
| 4. Integrated | Bonavista | Cabot Collegiate | 8-12 | 418 |
| | Catalina | T. A. Lench Mem | 9-12 | 226 |
| 5. Integrated | Carbonear | Carbonear Coll | 7-12 | 410 |
| | Victoria | Persalvic C.H. | 8-12 | 240 |
| 6. Integrated | Catalina | Catalina Elem | K-8 | 267 |
| | Little Catalina | L. Catalina Elem | K-5 | 49 |
| 7. Integrated | Clarke's Beach | Clarke's Beach Elem | K-9 | 235 |
| | Brigus | Brigus Academy | K-9 | 183 |
| 8. Integrated | Bay Roberts | Amalgamated Elem | K-9 | 212 |
| | Shearstown | St. Mark's Elem | K-9 | 328 |
| 9. Integrated | Dark Cove | Smallwood Aca | 9-12 | 263 |
| | Glovertown | Glovertown R.H. | 7-12 | 359 |
| 10. Integrated | Englee | Englee Elem | K-8 | 140 |
| | Bide Arm | Robert's Elem | K-3 | 14 |
| | Roddickton | Roddickton Elem | K-6 | 93 |
| 11. Integrated | Forteau | Forteau Elem | K-6 | 87 |
| | Lanse au Clair | St. Andrew's Elem | K-3 | 19 |
| 12. Integrated | Grand Bank | John Burke R.H. | 7-12 | 440 |
| | Fortune | Fortune Coll | 9-12 | 203 |
| 13. Integrated | Hermitage | John Watkins Aca | K-12 | 206 |
| | Seal Cove | John Loveless Mem | K-12 | 104 |
| 14. Integrated | Lewisporte | Lewisporte R.H. | 7-12 | 461 |
| | Campbellton | Greenwood C.H. | 7-12 | 219 |
| 15. Integrated | Lower Cove | Green Island Elem | K-6 | 121 |
| | Flower's Cove | Straits Elem | K-6 | 188 |
| 16. Integrated | Raleigh | Pistolet Bay | K-9 | 72 |
| | Ship Cove | Ship Cove Elem | K-6 | 28 |
| 17. Integrated | Musgrave Harbour | Gill Memorial Aca | K-12 | 374 |
| | Lumsden | Lumsden School | K-12 | 254 |
| 18. Integrated | Norman's Cove | Holy Trinity C.H. | 7-12 | 292 |
| | Whitbourne | Whitbourne C.H. | 9-12 | 119 |
| 19. Integrated | Triton | B. Peckford Elem | K-6 | 127 |
| | Pilley's Island | Blackmore Elem | K-3 | 49 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. Integrated | Trout River | Jakeman C.H. | 8-12 | 61 |
| | Woody Point | Bonne Bay C.H. | 7-12 | 78 |
| 21. Integrated | Bishop's Falls | Inglis Mem High | 7-12 | 260 |
| | Grand Falls | Grand Falls Aca | 9-12 | 348 |
| | Windsor | Windsor Coll | 7-12 | 356 |
| 22. Integrated | Winterton | Perlwin Elem | K-7 | 167 |
| | Hant's Harbour | Hant's Harbour | K-6 | 70 |
| 23. Roman Catholic | Bishop's Falls | Leo Burke Aca | K-12 | 357 |
| | Norris Arm | Carmel Coll | K-12 | 126 |
| 24. Roman Catholic | Castors River N. | Our Lady Mt. Carmel | K-3 | 31 |
| | Castors River S. | Our Lady of the Angels | K-3 | 13 |
| 25. Roman Catholic | Corner Brook | Regina High | 9-12 | 578 |
| | Curling | Cabrini High | 7-12 | 215 |
| 26. Roman Catholic | Harbour Grace | St. Francis C.H. | 7-12 | 279 |
| | Carbonear | St. Clare's C.H. | 7-12 | 251 |
| 27. Roman Catholic | Harbour Main | St. Joseph's Elem | K-6 | 172 |
| | Avondale | Assumption Elem | K-6 | 111 |
| 28. Roman Catholic | Lamaline | St. Joseph's Aca | K-12 | 399 |
| | Lawn | Holy Name of Mary | K-12 | 302 |
| 29. Roman Catholic | Marystown | Marystown C.H. | 7-12 | 667 |
| | Burin | Berney Mem High | 7-12 | 232 |
| 30. Roman Catholic | Stephenville Crossing | Assumption C.H. | 8-12 | 268 |
| | St. George's | St. Joseph's C.H. | 6-12 | 342 |
| 31. Roman Catholic | Witless Bay | St. Bernard's | K-6 | 174 |
| | Tors Cove | Sacred Heart | K-6 | 49 |
| | Bay Bulls | St. Patrick's | K-6 | 134 |

Table 13. Academic Allocations by School District, Model B.

| | School Staff | | | | | | | | | | Central Office Staff | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School District | Basic | Guid. | Lib. | Small | Mean | Native | French | Spec Ed | Total | Prin. | Supt. | Asst. | Co-ord. | Total | Alloc. |
| Vinland-Straits Int. | 158.2 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 18.0 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 27.3 | 214.8 | 12.0 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 10 | 236.8 |
| Deer Lake-St. Barbe int. | 174.9 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 19.1 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 30.2 | 234.2 | 13.0 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 11 | 258.2 |
| Exploits Valley Int. | 385.3 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 36.8 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 66.4 | 508.2 | 28.0 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 16 | 552.2 |
| Terra Nova-Notre Dame Int. | 463.8 | 10.7 | 10.7 | 15.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 74.6 | 575.2 | 29.5 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 16 | 620.7 |
| Bon-Tri-Placentia Int. | 272.1 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 4.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 43.8 | 332.5 | 17.0 | 1 | 4 | 8 | 13 | 362.5 |
| Avalon North Int. | 377.7 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 3.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 61.4 | 460.2 | 23.5 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 16 | 499.7 |
| Avalon Consolidated | 648.5 | 14.9 | 14.9 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 82.5 | 760.9 | 37.0 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 16 | 813.9 |
| Burin Peninsula Int. | 140.9 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 6.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 22.7 | 176.4 | 10.0 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 10 | 196.4 |
| Bay of Islands Int. | 378.2 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 15.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 61.4 | 472.7 | 25.5 | 1 | 5 | 13 | 19 | 517.2 |
| Labrador Int. | 179.6 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.6 | 0.0 | 25.2 | 0.0 | 28.9 | 246.5 | 12.0 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 11 | 269.5 |
| Pentecostal Assemblies | 285.4 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 30.2 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 49.2 | 382.1 | 24.0 | 1 | 4 | 9 | 14 | 420.1 |
| Burin Peninsula RC | 176.6 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 18.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 28.4 | 231.6 | 10.5 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 11 | 253.1 |
| Conception-Placentia Bay RC | 318.5 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 14.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 51.7 | 399.0 | 23.0 | 1 | 4 | 9 | 14 | 436.0 |
| Exploits-White Bay RC | 218.3 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 14.7 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 37.7 | 282.7 | 16.5 | 1 | 3 | 8 | 12 | 311.2 |
| Humber-St. Barbe RC | 174.7 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 9.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 28.6 | 220.5 | 11.5 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 10 | 242.0 |
| Labrador RC | 125.4 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 11.9 | 0.0 | 17.4 | 2.4 | 20.2 | 183.1 | 8.5 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 10 | 201.6 |
| Appalachia RC | 233.3 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 5.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 7.0 | 37.8 | 293.9 | 16.0 | 1 | 3 | 8 | 12 | 321.9 |
| St. John's RC | 935.4 | 21.5 | 21.5 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 119.8 | 1,098.9 | 52.5 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 16 | 1,167.4 |
| Seventh-Day Adventist | 13.1 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.3 | 23.0 | 1.5 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 25.5 |
| Total | 5,659.7 | 130.1 | 130.1 | 231.4 | 16.0 | 44.8 | 9.4 | 874.9 | 7,096.4 | 371.5 | 18 | 65 | 155 | 238 | 7,705.9 |

Table 14. School Board Expenditures by Denominational Jurisdiction, Models B and A.

| Current Expenditures | | | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Model A | Model B | B-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Administration Expenditures | | | | | | | | |
| 51 | 11 | Salaries & Wages (Gross) | 6,263,014 | 4,432,991 | 567,605 | 97,199 | 11,675,338 | 10,475,472 | (1,199,866) |
| | 12 | Employee Benefits | | - | | | 986,744 | 885,337 | (101,407) |
| | 13 | Office Supplies | 213,540 | 185,788 | 22,991 | 1,737 | 477,997 | 454,097 | (23,900) |
| | 14 | Office Furniture & Equipment | 19,553 | 57,700 | 6,242 | 0 | 93,280 | 88,616 | (4,664) |
| | 15 | Postage | 125,665 | 57,810 | 15,079 | 1,121 | 227,471 | 216,097 | (11,374) |
| | 16 | Telephone | 284,160 | 183,382 | 20,795 | 4,538 | 653,492 | 620,817 | (32,675) |
| | 17 | Office Equipment Rentals and Repairs | 210,178 | 133,918 | 20,116 | 0 | 413,788 | 413,788 | 0 |
| | 18 | Bank Charges | 43,974 | 73,180 | 98 | 905 | 139,242 | 139,242 | 0 |
| | 19 | Electricity | 144,755 | 45,631 | 3,062 | 0 | 259,140 | 246,183 | (12,957) |
| | 21 | Fuel | 16,861 | 28,356 | 7,344 | 0 | 52,561 | 49,933 | (2,628) |
| | 22 | Insurance | 19,120 | 42,990 | 300 | 122 | 62,532 | 59,405 | (3,127) |
| | 23 | Repairs & Maintenance (Office Building) | 97,883 | 67,216 | 1,373 | 0 | 190,819 | 181,278 | (9,541) |
| | 23 | Travel | 366,052 | 281,366 | 53,278 | 6,593 | 923,405 | 831,065 | (92,341) |
| | 25 | Board Meeting Expenses | 89,874 | 102,401 | 28,050 | 1,206 | 290,075 | 261,068 | (29,008) |
| | 26 | Election Expenses | 59,732 | 28,922 | 18,374 | 0 | 107,028 | 107,028 | 0 |
| | 27 | Professional Fees | 210,899 | 92,607 | 12,912 | 0 | 403,701 | 322,961 | (80,740) |
| | 28 | Advertising | 126,966 | 77,809 | 1,082 | 385 | 269,458 | 242,512 | (26,946) |
| | 29 | Membership Dues | 170,252 | 137,614 | 15,627 | 125 | 323,618 | 258,894 | (64,724) |
| | 31 | Municipal Service Fees | 7,197 | 3,209 | 0 | 0 | 10,406 | 10,406 | 0 |
| | 32 | Rental of Office Space | 48,339 | 57,049 | 0 | 0 | 105,388 | 94,849 | (10,539) |
| | 33 | Relocation Expenses | 26,300 | 7,799 | 0 | 6,962 | 41,061 | 123,183 | 82,122 |
| | 34 | Miscellaneous | 216,999 | 210,154 | 3,881 | 4,364 | 498,445 | 435,398 | (63,047) |
| | Total Administration Expenditures | | 8,761,313 | 6,307,891 | 798,209 | 125,257 | 18,204,989 | 16,517,630 | (1,687,359) |

|  |  | Instruction Expenditures | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Model A | Model B | B-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 52 | 10 | Instructional Salaries (Gross) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 11 | Tchrs' Sal/Benfits - Reg | 215,884,838 | 144,013,629 | 18,797,121 | 1,128,059 | 385284447 | 379,823,647 | (5,460,800) |
|  | 12 | - Substitute | 6,096,079 | 5,948,951 | 547,379 | 48,322 | 12,640,731 | 13,272,768 | 632,037 |
|  | 13 | - Board Paid | 866,832 | 730,565 | 41,124 | 0 | 1,638,521 | 1,638,521 | 0 |
|  | 14 | Augmentation | 730,173 | 569,827 | 0 | 0 | 1,300,000 | 1,300,000 | 0 |
|  | 15 | Employee Benefits |  |  |  |  |  | 0 | 0 |
|  | 16 | School Secretaries - Salaries | 2,779,515 | 2,022,956 | 202,259 | 0 | 5,004,730 | 4,754,494 | (250,237) |
|  | 17 | - Benefits | 301,619 | 269,623 | 25,096 | 0 | 596,338 | 596,338 | 0 |
|  | 18 | Other (Specify) | 363,250 | 507,053 | 0 | 0 | 870,303 | 870,303 | 0 |
|  |  |  | 227,022,306 | 154,062,604 | 19,612,979 | 1,176,381 | 407,335,070 | 402,256,070 | (5,079,000) |
| 52 | 40 | Instructional Materials |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 41 | General Supplies | 1,741 393 | 1,109,321 | 46,325 | 2,501 | 2,809,396 | 2,949,866 | 140,470 |
|  | 42 | Library Resource Materials | 774,732 | 474,676 | 65,061 | 3,974 | 1,408,587 | 1,479,016 | 70,429 |
|  | 43 | Teaching Aids | 1,706,537 | 1,289,951 | 210,681 | 35,361 | 3,242,530 | 3,242,530 | 0 |
|  | 44 | Textbooks | 620,026 | 477,032 | 95,549 | 2,161 | 1,194,768 | 1,194,768 | 0 |
|  |  |  | 4,842,688 | 3,350,980 | 417,616 | 43,997 | 8,655,281 | 8,866,180 | 210,899 |
| 52 | 60 | Instructional Furniture & Equipment |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 61 | Replacement | 636,801 | 300,058 | 48,639 | 730 | 986,228 | 986,228 | 0 |
|  | 62 | Rentals and Repairs | 468,153 | 302,924 | 48,885 | 6,535 | 826,497 | 826,497 | 0 |
|  |  |  | 1,104,954 | 602,982 | 97,524 | 7,265 | 1,812,725 | 1,812,725 | 0 |
| 52 | 80 | Instructional Staff Travel |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 81 | Program Co-ordinators | 267,882 | 143,233 | 41,215 | 0 | 704,330 | 535,500 | (168,830) |
|  | 82 | Teachers' Travel | 186,978 | 128,742 | 16,214 | 0 | 333,110 | 319,786 | (13,324) |
|  | 83 | In-service and Conferences | 442,523 | 234,450 | 60,442 | 13,907 | 760,722 | 730,293 | (30,429) |
|  |  |  | 897,383 | 506,425 | 117,871 | 13,907 | 1,798,162 | 1,585,579 | (212,583) |
| 52 | 90 | Other Instructional Costs |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 91 | Postage and Stationery | 341,517 | 42,519 | 11,274 | 452 | 395,762 | 379,932 | (15,830) |
|  | 92 | Miscellaneous | 293,765 | 404,203 | 333 | 3,109 | 701,410 | 729,466 | 28,056 |
|  |  |  | 635,282 | 446,722 | 11,607 | 3,561 | 1,097,172 | 1,109,398 | 12,226 |
|  |  | Total Instructional Expenditures | 234,502,613 | 158,969,713 | 20,257,597 | 1,245,111 | 420,698,410 | 415,629,952 | (5,068,458) |

|  |  | School Operations & Maintenance |  | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Model A | Model B | B-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 53 | 11 | Salaries - Janitorial |  | 7,689,103 | 5,527,239 | 817,417 | 37,128 | 14,599,199 | 14,070,887 | (528,312) |
|  | 12 | - Maintenance |  | 1,862,843 | 1,339,087 | 198,036 | 8,995 | 3,536,956 | 3,408,961 | (127,995) |
|  | 13 | Employee Benefits |  | 1,120,182 | 805,232 | 119,085 | 5,409 | 2,126,875 | 2,049,908 | (76,967) |
|  | 14 | Electricity |  | 4,999,424 | 3,593,789 | 531,481 | 24,141 | 9,492,341 | 9,148,834 | (343,507) |
|  | 15 | Fuel |  | 1,757,466 | 1,263,338 | 186,833 | 8,486 | 3,336,877 | 3,216,123 | (120,754) |
|  | 16 | Municipal Service Fees |  | 216,890 | 155,909 | 23,057 | 1,047 | 411,806 | 396,904 | (14,902) |
|  | 17 | Telephone |  | 673,960 | 484,470 | 71,648 | 3,254 | 1,279,639 | 1,233,332 | (46,307) |
|  | 18 | Vehicle Operating and Travel |  | 199,852 | 143,662 | 21,246 | 965 | 379,456 | 365,724 | (13,732) |
|  | 19 | Janitorial Supplies |  | 743,331 | 534,336 | 79,022 | 3,589 | 1,411,352 | 1,360,278 | (51,074) |
|  | 21 | Janitorial Equipment |  | 50,240 | 36,115 | 5,341 | 243 | 95,390 | 91,938 | (3,452) |
|  | 22 | Repairs & Maintenance | - Buildings | 3,337,575 | 2,399,185 | 354,813 | 16,116 | 6,337,011 | 6,107,689 | (229,322) |
|  | 23 |  | - Equipment | 82,829 | 59,541 | 8,805 | 400 | 157,267 | 151,576 | (5,691) |
|  | 24 | Contracted Services | - Janitorial | 516,533 | 371,305 | 54,912 | 2,494 | 980,735 | 945,244 | (35,491) |
|  | 25 | Snow Clearing |  | 455,576 | 327,486 | 48,432 | 2,200 | 864,996 | 833,694 | (31,302) |
|  | 26 | Rentals |  | 243,636 | 175,135 | 25,901 | 1,176 | 462,588 | 445,848 | (16,740) |
|  | 27 | Other (Specify) |  | 59,007 | 42,416 | 6,273 | 285 | 112,035 | 107,981 | (4,054) |
|  |  | Total Operations & Maintenance |  | 24,008,446 | 17,258,245 | 2,552,301 | 115,929 | 45,584,523 | 43,934,921 | (1,649,602) |

|  |  | Pupil Transportation Expenditures |  | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Model A | Model B | B-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 54 | 10 | Operation & Maintenance of Board Owned Fleet |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 11 | Salaries | - Administration | 236,677 | 142,332 | 9,803 | 1,535 | 369,721 | 390,346 | 20,625 |
|  | 12 |  | - Drivers and Mechanics | 3,797,737 | 2,283,867 | 157,305 | 24,630 | 5,932,581 | 6,263,539 | 330,958 |
|  | 13 | Employee Benefits |  | 438,489 | 263,696 | 18,163 | 2,844 | 684,979 | 723,192 | 38,213 |
|  | 14 | Debt Repayment | - Interest | 762,132 | 458,328 | 31,568 | 4,943 | 1,190,554 | 1,256,971 | 66,417 |
|  | 15 |  | - Principal | 933,382 | 561,313 | 38,661 | 6,053 | 1,458,070 | 1,539,411 | 81,341 |
|  | 16 | Bank Charges |  | 3,315 | 1,993 | 137 | 21 | 5,178 | 5,467 | 289 |
|  | 17 | Gas and Oil |  | 1,025,997 | 617,009 | 42,497 | 6,654 | 1,602,746 | 1,692,157 | 89,411 |
|  | 18 | Licenses |  | 82,734 | 49,754 | 3,427 | 537 | 129,241 | 136,451 | 7,210 |
|  | 19 | Insurance |  | 91,794 | 55,202 | 3,802 | 595 | 143,394 | 151,393 | 7,999 |
|  | 21 | Maintenance | - Fleet | 515,198 | 309,827 | 21,340 | 3,341 | 804,809 | 849,706 | 44,897 |
|  | 22 |  | - Building | 21,717 | 13,060 | 900 | 141 | 33,925 | 35,818 | 1,893 |
|  | 23 | Tires and Tubes |  | 116,172 | 69,863 | 4,812 | 753 | 181,476 | 191,600 | 10,124 |
|  | 24 | Heat and Light |  | 39,580 | 23,802 | 1,639 | 257 | 61,829 | 65,278 | 3,449 |
|  | 25 | Municipal Service |  | 3,804 | 2,287 | 158 | 25 | 5,942 | 6,273 | 331 |
|  | 26 | Snow Clearing |  | 12,048 | 7,245 | 499 | 78 | 18,820 | 19,870 | 1,050 |
|  | 27 | Office Supplies |  | 13,899 | 8,358 | 576 | 90 | 21,712 | 22,923 | 1,211 |
|  | 28 | Rent |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  | 29 | Travel |  | 15,155 | 9,114 | 628 | 98 | 23,674 | 24,995 | 1,321 |
|  | 31 | Professional Fees |  | 12,824 | 7,712 | 531 | 83 | 20,033 | 21,151 | 1,118 |
|  | 32 | Miscellaneous |  | 35,348 | 21,257 | 1,464 | 229 | 55,218 | 58,298 | 3,080 |
|  | 33 | Telephone |  | 14,202 | 8,541 | 588 | 92 | 22,185 | 23,423 | 1,238 |
|  | 34 | Capital Expenditure Out of Current |  | 14,876 | 8,946 | 616 | 96 | 23,238 | 24,534 | 1,296 |
|  |  |  |  | 8,187,076 | 4,923,508 | 339,114 | 53,097 | 12,789,325 | 13,502,796 | 713,471 |
| 54 | 40 | Contracted Services |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 41 | Regular Transportation |  | 9,437,336 | 5,675,385 | 390,901 | 61,206 | 14,742,402 | 15,564,828 | 822,426 |
|  | 42 | Handicapped |  | 1,193,886 | 717,974 | 49,452 | 7,743 | 1,865,012 | 1,969,054 | 104,042 |
|  |  |  |  | 10,631,222 | 6,393,359 | 440,353 | 68,949 | 16,607,414 | 17,533,882 | 926,468 |
|  | Total Pupil Transportation |  |  | 18,818,298 | 11,316,867 | 779,467 | 122,046 | 29,396,739 | 31,036,678 | 1,639,939 |

|  |  | Other Expenditures | Integrated | Catholic | Pentecostal | SDA | Model A | Model B | A-B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 55 | 10 | Ancillary Services |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 11 | Operation of Teachers' Residences | 259,302 | 329,498 | 6,507 | 0 | 595,307 | 595,307 | 0 |
|  | 31 | Cafeterias | 174,502 | 22,660 | 0 | 0 | 197,162 | 197,162 | 0 |
|  | 32 | Other (Specify) | 205,022 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 205,022 | 205,022 | 0 |
|  |  |  | 638,826 | 352,158 | 6,507 | 0 | 997,491 | 997,491 | 0 |
| 56 | 10 | Interest Expenses |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 12 | Capital |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | School Construction | 2,330,040 | 539,990 | 280,456 | 16,266 | 3,166,752 | 3,166,752 | 0 |
|  |  | Equipment | 9,741 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9,741 | 9,741 | 0 |
|  |  | Service Vehicles | 2,107 | 515 | 0 | 0 | 2,622 | 2,622 | 0 |
|  |  | Other | 35,389 | 21,632 | 0 | 30,393 | 87,414 | 87,414 | 0 |
|  |  |  | 2,377,277 | 562,137 | 280,456 | 46,659 | 3,266,529 | 3,266,529 | 0 |
|  | 13 | Current - Operating Loans | 128,523 | 1,292,364 | 0 | 0 | 1,420,887 | 1,420,887 | 0 |
|  | 14 | - Supplier Interest Charges | 19,065 | 25,239 | 0 | 0 | 44,304 | 44,304 | 0 |
|  |  |  | 147,588 | 1,317,603 | 0 | 0 | 1,465,191 | 1,465,191 | 0 |
|  |  | Total Interest Expense | 2,524,865 | 1,879,740 | 280,456 | 46,659 | 4,731,720 | 4,731,720 | 0 |
| 57 | 10 | Miscellaneous Expenses |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 57 | 11 | Miscellaneous (Specify) | 586,300 | 57,175 | 0 | 0 | 66,691 | 66,691 | 0 |
|  |  | Total Current Expenditures | 289,840,661 | 196,141,789 | 24,674,537 | 1,655,002 | 519,680,563 | 512,915,083 | (6,765,480) |

Note: Some totals may not add due to rounding.

# IV. PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA:
## Non-denominational Paradigms

Part IV of this report provides the findings of the two non-denominational models. Model C is based on the philosophy, principles, and organizational efficiencies of the denominational system as it existed in 1990-91. The rational non-denominational model (model D), in dealing with sensitive issues such as school district organization, optimal school units, administrative efficiency, and student transportation, examines the potential for maximum consolidation and economies of scale.

## Model C - A Non-denominational System

As a direct response to Term 4 of the Commission's mandate, Model C was designed to examine in detail the fiscal consequences of the denominational system, to discover potential inconsistencies and weaknesses in that system and to determine the costs associated with them. Specifically, it required the Commission to "examine the extent of duplication resulting from the denominational system and costs associated with such duplication". Model C represents what the education system would look like and cost if it were non-denominational but, in all other respects, structured and operated at the same level of efficiency as the existing denominational system. Given this criteria, there would exist a single set of non-denominational school boards. The design of these boards would parallel the guidelines for school district organization in existence during the 1989-90 school year.

### District Organization

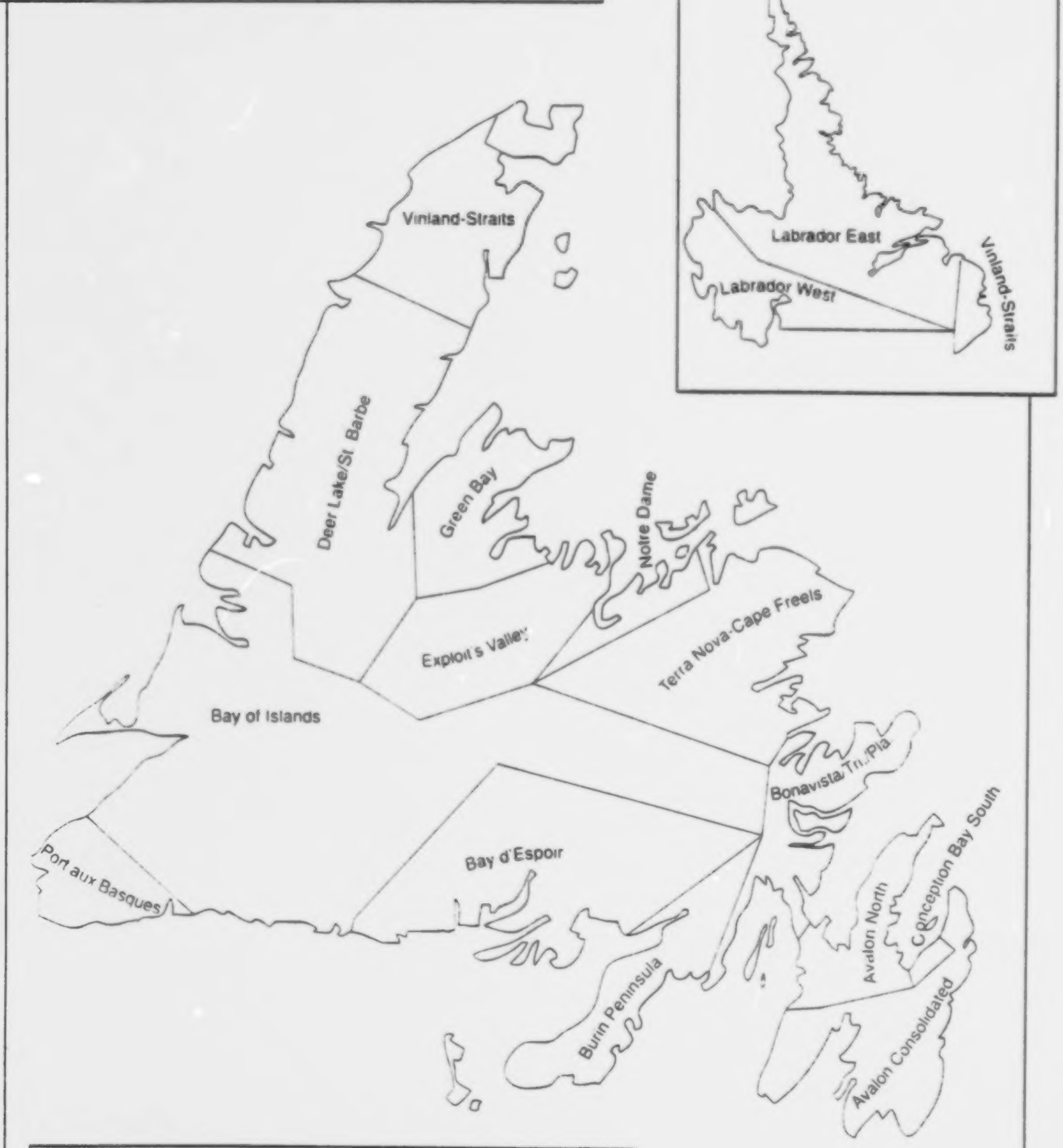
Among the three alternative models of district organization outlined in this report, Model C, being a theoretical model designed only to measure the cost of the denominational system, has little practical application. Few would advocate the abolition of one apparently inefficient education system in favour of another equally inefficient one. The grounds for developing this scenario were to ensure that the two systems being compared - one with a denominational structure and another without - were being compared fairly. It was vital, during the analysis stage, that various scale economies or other organizational efficiencies were not introduced which might bias the results of the comparison.

Given the parameters of this model and the need to derive a single set of educational districts, the decision was made to utilize the number and boundaries of the denomination having the most districts - in this case the 16 districts of the Integrated system. It was recognized that this was by no means ideal. To have used fewer would have introduced potential efficiencies not in existence at the time, and to have used more would not have reflected the organizational principles. Additionally, if one were creating a completely new set of school districts, it is unlikely many of them would match the existing integrated districts because of the demographic shifts which have occurred since they were originally established in the late 1960s, and because of the large Roman Catholic and Pentecostal populations that would have to be accommodated.

Model C thus has 16 non-denominational school districts encompassing the entire province (see Figure 9). A complete list of these districts along with the enrolment, schools, average school size and enrolment in small schools is presented in Table 15. All data are presented without any school consolidation and reallocation of teaching units.

Of particular note is the large range in size among districts. For example, Bay d'Espoir, a geographically large rural board, has a student population of 2,474 students under Model C while St. John's, an urban metropolitan board, has 33,896 students. The average number of students per district (8,132), influenced in large part by the large St. John's district, is somewhat misleading; thus the median (5,407) would be a much more appropriate measure of central tendency. For boards with large urban populations the average school size tended to be more than 300 students, while for rural boards with larger numbers of small schools the average school size tended to be less than 200 students.

**A Non-denominational System**


Labrador East
Labrador West
Vinland-Straits
Vinland-Straits
Deer Lake/St. Barbe
Green Bay
Notre Dame
Exploit's Valley
Terra Nova-Cape Freels
Bay of Islands
Bonavista/Tri./Pla
Bay d'Espoir
Port aux Basques
Burin Peninsula
Avalon North
Conception Bay South
Avalon Consolidated

**Model C -- School Districts.**

Table 16 is a representation of the makeup of school districts as applied across the province under Model C. It presents the number of students by denomination for each district – both the original integrated enrolment taken from Model A and the new enrolment for each denomination determined by this model.

**School Organization**

The process of measuring the potential for school consolidation was similar to that used for Model B. Unlike Model B, however, the criteria for determining potential consolidations were different. Derived from focus groups and expert panels, the criteria were based primarily on a definition of denominational duplication. In this definition, denominational duplication was seen to exist in those communities in which there were schools of more than one denomination and in which the ability to offer a viable education program was either undermined or threatened.

Such a restrictive definition was necessary to avoid the introduction of potential efficiencies which could offset the reliability of any comparisons with the existing denominational system. At this point, some might argue that similar duplication exists in communities in close proximity with one another having schools of more than one denomination. While the educational arguments about the value of schooling in one's own community and of community spirit and lifestyle cannot be overlooked, it was felt these were issues secondary to the maintenance of the denominational system and were more related to efficiency and productivity. Thus, the issue of distance between schools of neighbouring communities was assessed under Models B and D, but not addressed by Model C.

Table 15. Enrolment, Schools, Average School Size, and Small School Enrolment by School District, No Consolidation, Model C.[1]

| School District | Enrolment | Schools | Avg. Size | Small Enrol. | Small % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Vinland-Straits | 4,670 | 46 | 101.5 | 2,301 | 49.3 |
| Deer Lake | 5,595 | 34 | 164.6 | 2,161 | 38.6 |
| Green Bay | 5,218 | 41 | 127.3 | 1,735 | 33.3 |
| Exploits Valley | 6,954 | 32 | 217.3 | 560 | 8.1 |
| Notre Dame | 4,669 | 20 | 233.5 | 532 | 11.4 |
| Terra Nova-Cape Freels | 9,044 | 38 | 238.0 | 945 | 10.4 |
| Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia | 7,012 | 28 | 250.4 | 1,123 | 16.0 |
| Avalon North | 14,583 | 66 | 221.0 | 875 | 6.0 |
| Avalon | 33,896 | 90 | 376.6 | 525 | 1.5 |
| Burin Peninsula | 7,372 | 30 | 245.7 | 1,727 | 23.4 |
| Bay D'Espoir | 2,474 | 16 | 154.6 | 1,554 | 62.8 |
| Port aux Basques | 2,913 | 15 | 194.2 | 438 | 15.0 |
| Bay of Islands | 13,944 | 49 | 284.6 | 1,161 | 8.3 |
| Labrador East | 3,528 | 18 | 196.0 | 712 | 20.2 |
| Labrador West | 3,410 | 8 | 426.3 | 265 | 7.8 |
| Conception Bay South | 4,827 | 12 | 402.3 | 7 | 0.1 |
| **Provincial Average** | **8,132** | **34** | **239.6** | **1,039** | **312.3** |
| **Total** | **130,109** | **543** | - | **16,621** | - |

[1] Based on data for the 1989-90 school year.

Table 16. Enrolment by School District by Denomination, Model A and C.

| School District | Model A<br>Actual | Int. | % Int. | Model C<br>Actual | % Int. | % RC. | % Pent. | % SDA. | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Vinland-Straits | 3,637 | 2556 | 70.3 | 4,670 | 77.9 | 10.4 | 11.7 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Deer Lake | 4,021 | 3148 | 78.3 | 5,595 | 71.9 | 19.1 | 9.0 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Green Bay | 3,161 | 2378 | 75.2 | 5,218 | 60.6 | 11.9 | 27.5 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Exploits Valley | 4,005 | 2925 | 73.0 | 6,954 | 57.6 | 25.9 | 16.2 | 0.3 | 100.0 |
| Notre Dame | 2,954 | 2434 | 82.4 | 4,669 | 63.3 | 2.7 | 34.0 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Terra Nova-Cape Freels | 7,709 | 6112 | 79.3 | 9,044 | 85.2 | 13.2 | 1.5 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia | 6,255 | 5071 | 81.1 | 7,012 | 89.2 | 10.0 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 100.0 |
| Avalon North | 8,683 | 7348 | 84.6 | 14,583 | 59.5 | 38.9 | 1.4 | 0.1 | 100.0 |
| Avalon | 11,427 | 9422 | 82.5 | 33,896 | 33.7 | 63.7 | 2.1 | 0.5 | 100.0 |
| Burin Peninsula | 3,239 | 2794 | 86.3 | 7,372 | 43.9 | 55.1 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 100.0 |
| Bay d'Espoir | 1,691 | 1488 | 88.0 | 2,474 | 68.4 | 31.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Port aux Basques | 2,374 | 2173 | 91.5 | 2,913 | 81.5 | 18.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Bay of Islands | 6,320 | 5304 | 83.9 | 13,944 | 45.3 | 53.1 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 100.0 |
| Labrador East | 2,205 | 1708 | 77.5 | 3,528 | 46.4 | 52.4 | 1.1 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Labrador West | 1,923 | 1470 | 76.4 | 3,410 | 87.9 | 12.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Conception Bay South | 3,480 | 2890 | 83.0 | 4,827 | 72.1 | 27.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 73,084 | 59,221 | 81.0 | 130,109 | 56.2 | 38.6 | 5.0 | 0.2 | 100.0 |

To complete the task of ascertaining the extent of duplication at the school level, it was necessary to establish several additional criteria which would apply equally to every school in the province. Applying these criteria would allow the establishment of a list of communities where duplication exists for purely denominational reasons. These other criteria were

1. schools matched only by schools offering the same grades;
2. where more than one school is involved, such as in an urban area, schools matched by the nearest school;
3. busing calculated for children to attend the nearest school.

Some of the same limitations in applying the criteria for consolidation experienced in Model B are manifest in this model as well. The lack of an understanding of the local political environment and having no unified local database with demographic projections, is admittedly restrictive but not insurmountable. However, the absence of such a database inhibits a healthy and informed debate among educators and parents about the potential for denominational sharing.

Using the criteria presented above, 33 communities were identified as having one or more schools which could be consolidated. The complete list is presented in Table 17. The 89 schools identified, depicting 42 potential consolidations, represent the most obvious cases of denominational duplication. In some cases, three schools were identified which could be reduced to two. As with Model B, the individual schools which would close or remain open were not specified, and the final choices were based on sound educational principles only in those areas where it was felt a more complete educational experience could be guaranteed.

Table 18 presents the allocations for teachers, principals and central office personnel for Model C. Based on the same policies used for Model A, the new model shows a reduction of 219.6 staffing units. Under Model C, there are 7,084 teachers, 369 principals, and 206 central office staff. The greatest difference between models A and C is the loss of 106 program co-ordinators resulting from district consolidation. Of the 64 teaching units lost through school consolidation, 23 are caused by the consolidation of small schools. An interesting sidelight is the loss of 52 special education units for one board based solely on the loss of three schools and the application of current government allocation policy, even though the same special education students would still require the same special education services. Government thus would be well advised to consider resource allocation policies which directly address student needs rather than ones based on numbers of schools and district enrolments. Such policies now militate against any form of school consolidation.

Table 17. Examples of Communities Where Consolidation of Schools across Denominational Lines Is Recommended.

| Community | Schools | Denomination | Gds. | No. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Badger | Badger Elem | Pentecostal | K-8 | 55 |
| | Avoca Coll | Roman Catholic | K-12 | 161 |
| 2. Baie Verte | St. Pius X H.S. | Roman Catholic | 7-12 | 184 |
| | Beothuck Coll | Integrated | 7-12 | 458 |
| 3. Baie Verte | R. T. Harvey | Integrated | K-6 | 126 |
| | St. Pius X Elem | Roman Catholic | K-6 | 159 |
| 4. Bay Roberts | Lyndale Academy | Seventh-Day Adv. | K-9 | 15 |
| | Amalgamated Elem | Integrated | K-9 | 212 |
| 5. Bell Island | St. Boniface C.H. | Integrated | 7-12 | 196 |
| | St. Michael's | Roman Catholic | 7-12 | 298 |
| 6. Bishop's Falls | Bishop's Falls Elem | Pentecostal | K-6 | 127 |
| | Helen Tulk | Integrated | K-6 | 184 |
| 7. Botwood | L. P. Purchase Aca | Pentecostal | K-7 | 137 |
| | Botwood Academy Pri | Integrated | K-3 | 202 |
| 8. Botwood | Exploits Valley Aca | Seventh-Day Adv. | K-9 | 22 |
| | Botwood Academy | Integrated | 4-8 | 353 |
| 9. Brigus | Brigus Academy | Integrated | K-9 | 183 |
| | St. Edward's Elem | Roman Catholic | K-7 | 296 |
| 10. Buchans | St. Theresa's A.G. | Roman Catholic | K-12 | 79 |
| | Buchans Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 103 |
| 11. Burlington | Greenwood Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 15 |
| | M. W. Jeans Aca | Pentecostal | K-7 | 68 |
| 12. Carbonear | St. Clare's C.H. | Roman Catholic | 7-12 | 251 |
| | Carbonear Coll | Integrated | 7-12 | 410 |
| 13. Carmanville | Carmanville Elem | Pentecostal | K-6 | 16 |
| | Carmanville School | Integrated | K-12 | 491 |
| 14. Corner Brook | Highview Academy | Seventh-Day Adv. | K-12 | 66 |
| | All Hallows School | Roman Catholic | K-7 | 194 |
| 15. Deer Lake | St. Francis X. H.S. | Roman Catholic | K-12 | 252 |
| | Elwood R.H. | Integrated | 9-12 | 287 |
| | Deer Lake School | Pentecostal | K-12 | 321 |
| 16. Dunville | Grace Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 51 |
| | St. Anne's Aca | Roman Catholic | K-12 | 429 |
| | St. Martin's C.H. | Integrated | 7-12 | 68 |
| 17. Gander | St. Paul's C.H. | Roman Catholic | 7-12 | 281 |
| | Gander Coll | Integrated | 10-12 | 390 |
| 18. Harbour Grace | St. Paul's C.H. | Integrated | 7-12 | 227 |
| | St. Francis C H. | Roman Catholic | 7-12 | 279 |
| 19. Hawkes Bay | Ingornachoix Elem | Integrated | K-7 | 50 |
| | Ralph Harnum Elem | Pentecostal | K-12 | 148 |
| 20. Lethbridge | Bayview Academy | Seventh-Day Adv. | K-9 | 8 |
| | L.R. Ash Elem | Integrated | K-8 | 265 |
| 21. Marystown | Creston Academy | Pentecostal | K-8 | 54 |
| | Sacred Heart Elem | Roman Catholic | K-6 | 740 |
| | Creston Academy | Seventh-Day Adv. | K-9 | 19 |

| Community | Schools | Denomination | Gds. | No. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 22. Ming's Bight | Seaside Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 16 |
| | Ocean View Elem | Pentecostal | K-7 | 53 |
| 23. Norris Arm | Norris Arm | Integrated | K-9 | 120 |
| | Carmel Coll | Roman Catholic | K-12 | 126 |
| 24. Port de Grave | St. Luke's Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 63 |
| | Port de Grave | Pentecostal | K-9 | 114 |
| 25. Pouch Cove | Pouch Cove Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 150 |
| | St. Agnes Elem | Roman Catholic | K-6 | 177 |
| 26. Robert's Arm | Crescent Elem | Integrated | 4-6 | 50 |
| | R. W. Parsons Aca | Pentecostal | K-6 | 82 |
| 27. Roddickton | Evely Collegiate | Integrated | 7-12 | 110 |
| | A. C. Palmer Coll | Pentecostal | 7-12 | 84 |
| 28. Roddickton | Roddickton Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 93 |
| | A. C. Palmer Aca | Pentecostal | K-6 | 92 |
| 29. South Brook | Hall's Bay Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 30 |
| | South Brook Elem | Pentecostal | K-6 | 64 |
| 30. Springdale | Grant Collegiate | Integrated | 7-12 | 328 |
| | Charisma Coll | Pentecostal | 7-12 | 349 |
| 31. Springdale | Charisma Aca | Pentecostal | K-6 | 165 |
| | Indian River Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 215 |
| 32. St. John's | Our Lady of Mercy | Roman Catholic | K-8 | 220 |
| | Presentation Elem | Roman Catholic | K-3 | 221 |
| 33. St. John's | Brinton Memorial | Integrated | K-6 | 191 |
| | St. Pius X Elem | Roman Catholic | K-4 | 359 |
| 34. St. John's | St. John's Elem | Seventh-Day Adv. | K-6 | 95 |
| | Bishop Abraham | Integrated | K-6 | 281 |
| 35. St. John's | St. John's Aca | Seventh-Day Adv. | 7-12 | 76 |
| | Booth Memorial | Integrated | 10-12 | 534 |
| 36. St. John's | Harrington Pri | Integrated | K-4 | 164 |
| | Holy Cross | Roman Catholic | K-5 | 463 |
| 37. Stephenville | L. S. Eddy Coll | Pentecostal | 7-12 | 87 |
| | Stephenville H.S. | Integrated | 6-12 | 384 |
| 38. Stephenville | L. S. Eddy Academy | Pentecostal | K-6 | 61 |
| | W. E. Cormack Aca | Integrated | K-5 | 220 |
| 39. Summerford | Inter Island Academy | Pentecostal | K-6 | 246 |
| | Summerford Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 150 |
| 40. Triton | Harbour View | Pentecostal | K-6 | 94 |
| | Brian Peckford Elem | Integrated | K-6 | 127 |
| 41. Victoria | Bethel Academy | Pentecostal | K-9 | 97 |
| | Persalvic Elementary | Integrated | K-7 | 321 |
| 42. Windsor | Windsor Academy | Integrated | K-6 | 259 |
| | Windsor Elementary | Pentecostal | K-6 | 290 |

Table 18. Academic Allocations by School District, Model C.

| | School Staff | | | | | | | | | Central Office Staff | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School District | Basic | Guid. | Lib. | Small | Mean | Native | French | Spec Ed | Total | Prin. | Supt. | Asst. | Co-ord. | Total | Alloc |
| 1 Vinland-Straits | 202.7 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 31.6 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 31.1 | 278.7 | 13.2 | 1.0 | 3.0 | 8.0 | 12.0 | 303.9 |
| 2 Deer Lake-St. Barbe | 242.6 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 28.6 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 37.3 | 321.7 | 15.8 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 8.0 | 13.0 | 350.5 |
| 3 Green Bay | 226.6 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 23.4 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 34.8 | 297.3 | 14.8 | 1.0 | 3.0 | 8.0 | 12.0 | 324.0 |
| 4 Exploits Valley | 302.0 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 6.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 46.4 | 369 2 | 19.7 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 9.0 | 14.0 | 402.8 |
| 5 Notre Dame | 202.6 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 8.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 31.1 | 251.1 | 13.2 | 1.0 | 3.0 | 7.0 | 11.0 | 275.3 |
| 6 Terra Nova-Cape Freels | 392.4 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 13.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 60.3 | 484.7 | 25.5 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 526.3 |
| 7 Bon-Tri-Placentia | 304.3 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 16.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 46.8 | 381.8 | 19.8 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 9.0 | 14.0 | 415.6 |
| 8 Avalon North | 633.1 | 14.6 | 14.6 | 7.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 97.3 | 766.5 | 41.2 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 823.8 |
| 9 Avalon | 1,476.7 | 33.9 | 33.9 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 226.9 | 1,778.2 | 96.1 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 1,890.4 |
| 10 Burin Peninsula | 320.0 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 24.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 49.2 | 408.7 | 20.8 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 9.0 | 14.0 | 443.5 |
| 11 Bay D'Espoir | 107.8 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 23.3 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 16.6 | 154.6 | 7.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 171.7 |
| 12 Port aux Basques | 126.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 6.6 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 19.5 | 160.8 | 8.3 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 179.1 |
| 13 Bay of Islands-St. George's | 609.3 | 13.9 | 13.9 | 14.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 7.0 | 93.6 | 752.0 | 39.7 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 807.7 |
| 14 Labrador East | 153.2 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 10.7 | 2.0 | 44.8 | 0.0 | 23.5 | 241.3 | 10.0 | 1.0 | 3.0 | 7.0 | 11.0 | 262.3 |
| 15 Labrador West | 150.2 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.4 | 23.1 | 186.5 | 9.8 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 10.0 | 206.3 |
| 16 Conception Bay South | 209.3 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 32.2 | 251.2 | 13.6 | 1.0 | 3.0 | 7.0 | 11.0 | 275.9 |
| Total | 5,659.7 | 130.1 | 130.1 | 226.5 | 14.0 | 44.8 | 9.4 | 869.8 | 7,084.4 | 368.5 | 16.0 | 57.0 | 133.0 | 206.0 | 7,658.9 |

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### Student Transportation

The cost of student transportation, which is so high in Model B, is only marginally elevated in this model. Because consolidation is restricted to schools within the same community, few additional bus routes are required. In most cases, for example, students could be accommodated through the restructuring of existing services, demanding only a marginal increase in expenditure. In several cases, students could even be accommodated entirely by existing services, thereby achieving considerable savings.

Further investigation found areas where busing services for a single region were administered independently by two, three and even four jurisdictions. Under such circumstances it is virtually impossible to avoid overlapping routes. In some cases, additional routes were in place because of a lack of flexibility on the part of schools and boards. In others, additional routes were in place solely to accommodate the denominational system. For example, Roman Catholic students in Frenchman's Cove, living only minutes from an integrated school in Garnish, were bused 15 km to a Roman Catholic school in Marystown. Under Model C such duplication is avoided and all services are centralized under the jurisdiction of a single board with busing provided only to the nearest school.

### Summary of Costs

Table 19 shows comparative expenditures by individual account items for both a sample district and for the province as a whole. The data presented for the sample board under Model A do not represent any particular Model A board but merely illustrate what a comparable Model C board would look like by combining all corresponding costs within the Model C boundary. A provincial summary is included to show the overall potential savings that could be achieved as a result of a single school board model.

**Administration expenditures**. The cost of operating and maintaining school board offices ($14.7 million) accounted for 2.9 percent of the total education expenditure. Over $3.5 million savings were realized between models C and A. Most of this was accomplished through superintendents' salaries and certain economies of scale achieved through the closing of a number of buildings. Of the total administration expenditure, 67.4 percent went on salaries and benefits.

**Instruction expenditures**. The provision of instruction ($413.3 million) accounted for 81.8 percent of the total cost, a savings of almost 2 percent over Model A. Of that amount, 96.9 percent is committed to salaries and benefits, and 2.1 percent is spent on instructional materials such as textbooks, resource materials, library supplies and teaching aids. More than $8.3 million in savings in instructional salaries are identified. The majority of these salary unit reductions are central office personnel.

**Operations and maintenance expenditures**. Just over $2 million in savings could be achieved through the consolidation of schools. Of that amount, approximately $900,000 would be saved through salaries and the remainder through the closure of buildings. The two largest components are the salaries and benefits of janitorial and maintenance staff ($19.4 million), and heat and light ($12.3 million). Repairs and maintenance to buildings and equipment account for another $6.2 million.

**Pupil transportation expenditures**. Of the total cost of student transportation under Model A ($29.4 million), $439,400 could be saved through the consolidation of schools, children travelling to the nearest school, and a single system of operating buses within each region. Little could be done to save on the approximately $2 million spent for the transportation of students with special physical needs; depending on where the students are, real costs could go up or down.

**Other expenditures**. The remaining one percent of the total cost of education, spent on various ancillary services and interest expenses, is not affected by the model and no savings were achieved. The largest component ($3.3 million), committed to interest on capital, would not disappear through the consolidation of school boards.

Table 19. School Board Expenditures for Sample District and Total Province, Models C and A.

| | | | | Sample Board | | | Provincial Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Current Expenditures | Combined A | Sample C | C-A | Model A | Model C | C-A |
| | | Administration Expenditures | | | | | | |
| 51 | 11 | Salaries & Wages (Gross) | 724,721 | 568,509 | (156,212) | 11,675,338 | 9,132,323 | (2,543,015) |
| | 12 | Employee Benefits | 64,319 | 50,455 | (13,864) | 986,744 | 771,820 | (214,924) |
| | 13 | Office Supplies | 41,050 | 34,893 | (6,157) | 477,997 | 431,392 | (46,605) |
| | 14 | Office Furniture & Equipment | 2,194 | 1,865 | (329) | 93,280 | 84,185 | (9,095) |
| | 15 | Postage | 10,208 | 8,677 | (1,531) | 227,471 | 205,293 | (22,178) |
| | 16 | Telephone | 42,623 | 29,836 | (12,787) | 653,492 | 589,777 | (63,715) |
| | 17 | Office Equipment Rentals and Repairs | 25,425 | 25,425 | 0 | 413,788 | 413,788 | 0 |
| | 18 | Bank Charges | 3,925 | 3,925 | 0 | 139,242 | 139,242 | 0 |
| | 19 | Electricity | 13,433 | 9,403 | (4,030) | 259,140 | 233,874 | (25,266) |
| | 21 | Fuel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 52,561 | 47,436 | (5,125) |
| | 22 | Insurance | 1,424 | 1,424 | 0 | 62,532 | 56,435 | (6,097) |
| | 23 | Repairs & Maintenance (Office Building) | 36,373 | 30,917 | (5,456) | 190,819 | 172,214 | (18,605) |
| | 23 | Travel | 59,064 | 41,345 | (17,719) | 923,405 | 747,958 | (175,447) |
| | 25 | Board Meeting Expenses | 16,576 | 11,603 | (4,973) | 290,075 | 234,961 | (55,114) |
| | 26 | Election Expenses | 4,824 | 4,824 | 0 | 107,028 | 107,028 | 0 |
| | 27 | Professional Fees | 15,321 | 10,725 | (4,596) | 403,701 | 258,369 | (145,332) |
| | 28 | Advertising | 21,664 | 15,165 | (6,499) | 269,458 | 218,261 | (51,197) |
| | 29 | Membership Dues | 19,567 | 19,567 | 0 | 323,618 | 207,116 | (116,502) |
| | 31 | Municipal Service Fees | 156 | 156 | 0 | 10,406 | 10,406 | 0 |
| | 32 | Rental of Office Space | 0 | 0 | 0 | 105,388 | 85,364 | (20,024) |
| | 33 | Relocation Expenses | 0 | 0 | 0 | 41,061 | 164,244 | 123,183 |
| | 34 | Miscellaneous | 13,897 | 11,812 | (2,085) | 498,445 | 385,927 | (112,518) |
| | | Total Administration Expenditures | 1,116,764 | 880,526 | (236,238) | 18,204,989 | 14,697,412 | (3,507,577) |

|  |  | Instruction Expenditures | Combined A | Sample C | C-A | Model A | Model C | C-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 52 | 10 | Instructional Salaries (Gross) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 11 | Tchrs' Sal/Benfits - Reg | 22,034,418 | 21,651,918 | (382,500) | 385,284,447 | 376,983,547 | (8,300,900) |
|  | 12 | - Substitute | 980,461 | 980,461 | 0 | 12,640,731 | 13,936,406 | 1,295,675 |
|  | 13 | - Board Paid | 58,766 | 58,766 | 0 | 1,638,521 | 1,638,521 | 0 |
|  | 14 | Augmentation | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,300,000 | 1,300,000 | 0 |
|  | 15 | Employee Benefits | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  | 16 | School Secretaries - Salaries | 290,906 | 290,906 | 0 | 5,004,730 | 4,516,769 | (487,961) |
|  | 17 | - Benefits | 21,114 | 21,114 | 0 | 596,338 | 596,367 | 29 |
|  | 18 | Other (Specify) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 870,303 | 870,383 | 80 |
|  |  |  | 23,385,665 | 23,003,165 | (382,500) | 407,335,070 | 399,841,992 | (7,493,078) |
| 52 | 40 | Instructional Materials |  |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | 41 | General Supplies | 174,985 | 174,985 | 0 | 2,809,396 | 3,097,359 | 287,963 |
|  | 42 | Library Resource Materials | 69,415 | 69,415 | 0 | 1,408,587 | 1,552,967 | 144,380 |
|  | 43 | Teaching Aids | 242,725 | 242,725 | 0 | 3,242,530 | 3,242,530 | 0 |
|  | 44 | Textbooks | 95,997 | 95,997 | 0 | 1,194,768 | 1,194,768 | 0 |
|  |  |  | 583,122 | 583,122 | 0 | 8,655,281 | 9,087,624 | 432,343 |
| 52 | 60 | Instructional Furniture & Equipment |  |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | 61 | Replacement | 23,970 | 23,970 | 0 | 986,228 | 986,242 | 14 |
|  | 62 | Rentals and Repairs | 14,732 | 14,732 | 0 | 826,497 | 826,670 | 173 |
|  |  |  | 38,702 | 38,702 | 0 | 1,812,725 | 1,812,912 | 187 |
| 52 | 80 | Instructional Staff Travel |  |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | 81 | Program Co-ordinators | 49,202 | 31,702 | (17,500) | 704,330 | 465,500 | (238,830) |
|  | 82 | Teachers' Travel | 989 | 905 | (84) | 333,110 | 306,994 | (26,116) |
|  | 83 | In-service and Conferences | 84,640 | 83,982 | (658) | 760,722 | 701,081 | (59,641) |
|  |  |  | 134,831 | 116,589 | (18,242) | 1,798,162 | 1,473,576 | (324,586) |
| 52 | 90 | Other Instructional Costs |  |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | 91 | Postage and Stationery | 10,302 | 10,302 | 0 | 395,762 | 364,734 | (31,028) |
|  | 92 | Miscellaneous | 15,268 | 15,268 | 0 | 701,410 | 758,645 | 57,235 |
|  |  |  | 25,570 | 25,570 | 0 | 1,097,172 | 1,123,379 | 26,207 |
|  |  | Total Instructional Expenditures | 24,167,890 | 23,767,148 | (400,742) | 420,698,410 | 413,339,483 | (7,358,927) |

| | | School Operations & Maintenance | | Combined A | Sample C | C-A | Model A | Model C | C-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 53 | 11 | Salaries | - Janitorial | 883,399 | 869,998 | (13,401) | 14,599,199 | 13,951,174 | (648,025) |
| | 12 | | - Maintenance | 1,438 | 1,416 | (22) | 3,536,956 | 3,379,959 | (156,997) |
| | 13 | Employee Benefits | | 94,818 | 93,380 | (1,438) | 2,126,875 | 2,032,468 | (94,407) |
| | 14 | Electricity | | 646,435 | 636,629 | (9,806) | 9,492,341 | 9,070,998 | (421,343) |
| | 15 | Fuel | | 108,432 | 106,787 | (1,645) | 3,336,877 | 3,188,761 | (148,116) |
| | 16 | Municipal Service Fees | | 21,079 | 20,759 | (320) | 411,806 | 393,527 | (18,279) |
| | 17 | Telephone | | 71,728 | 70,640 | (1,088) | 1,279,639 | 1,222,839 | (56,800) |
| | 18 | Vehicle Operating and Travel | | 8,834 | 8,700 | (134) | 379,456 | 362,613 | (16,843) |
| | 19 | Janitorial Supplies | | 74,561 | 73,430 | (1,131) | 1,411,352 | 1,348,705 | (62,647) |
| | 21 | Janitorial Equipment | | 9,340 | 9,198 | (142) | 95,390 | 91,156 | (4,234) |
| | 22 | Repairs & Maintenance | - Buildings | 152,743 | 150,426 | (2,317) | 6,337,011 | 6,055,726 | (281,285) |
| | 23 | | - Equipment | 1,824 | 1,796 | (28) | 157,267 | 150,286 | (6,981) |
| | 24 | Contracted Services | - Janitorial | 69,593 | 68,537 | (1,056) | 980,735 | 937,202 | (43,533) |
| | 25 | Snow Clearing | | 54,815 | 53,983 | (832) | 864,996 | 826,601 | (38,395) |
| | 26 | Rentals | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 462,588 | 442,055 | (20,533) |
| | 27 | Other (Specify) | | 4 | 4 | 0 | 112,035 | 107,062 | (4,973) |
| | Total Operations & Maintenance | | | 2,199,043 | 2,165,684 | (33,359) | 45,584,523 | 43,561,131 | (2,023,392) |

|  |  | Pupil Transportation Expenditures | Combined A | Sample C | C-A | Model A | Model C | C-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 54 | 10 | Operation & Maintenance of Board Owned Fleet |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 11 | Salaries - Administration | 55,698 | 23,747 | (31,951) | 369,721 | 364,197 | (5,524) |
|  | 12 | - Drivers and Mechanics | 798,164 | 381,050 | (417,114) | 5,932,581 | 5,843,940 | (88,641) |
|  | 13 | Employee Benefits | 70,594 | 43,996 | (26,598) | 684,979 | 674,744 | (10,235) |
|  | 14 | Debt Repayment - Interest | 240,000 | 76,469 | (163,531) | 1,190,554 | 1,172,765 | (17,789) |
|  | 15 | - Principal | 249,401 | 93,652 | (155,749) | 1,458,070 | 1,436,284 | (21,786) |
|  | 16 | Bank Charges | 2,658 | 333 | (2,325) | 5,178 | 5,101 | (77) |
|  | 17 | Gas and Oil | 175,837 | 102,945 | (72,892) | 1,602,746 | 1,578,799 | (23,947) |
|  | 18 | Licenses | 17,905 | 8,301 | (9,604) | 129,241 | 127,310 | (1,931) |
|  | 19 | Insurance | 21,316 | 9,210 | (12,106) | 143,394 | 141,251 | (2,143) |
|  | 21 | Maintenance - Fleet | 99,738 | 51,693 | (48,045) | 804,809 | 792,784 | (12,025) |
|  | 22 | - Building | 1,082 | 2,179 | 1,097 | 33,925 | 33,418 | (507) |
|  | 23 | Tires and Tubes | 22,145 | 11,656 | (10,489) | 181,476 | 178,764 | (2,712) |
|  | 24 | Heat and Light | 7,409 | 3,971 | (3,438) | 61,829 | 60,905 | (924) |
|  | 25 | Municipal Service | 482 | 382 | (100) | 5,942 | 5,853 | (89) |
|  | 26 | Snow Clearing | 90 | 1,209 | 1,119 | 18,820 | 18,539 | (281) |
|  | 27 | Office Supplies | 4,147 | 1,395 | (2,752) | 21,712 | 21,388 | (324) |
|  | 28 | Rent | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  | 29 | Travel | 2,342 | 1,521 | (821) | 23,674 | 23,320 | (354) |
|  | 31 | Professional Fees | 3,925 | 1,287 | (2,638) | 20,033 | 19,734 | (299) |
|  | 32 | Miscellaneous | 9,460 | 3,547 | (5,913) | 55,218 | 54,393 | (825) |
|  | 33 | Telephone | 2,847 | 1,425 | (1,422) | 22,185 | 21,854 | (331) |
|  | 34 | Capital Expenditure Out of Current | 0 | 1,493 | 1,493 | 23,238 | 22,891 | (347) |
|  |  |  | 1,785,240 | 821,459 | (963,781) | 12,789,325 | 12,598,235 | (191,090) |
| 54 | 40 | Contracted Services |  |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | 41 | Regular Transportation | 6,064 | 946,906 | 940,842 | 14,742,402 | 14,522,130 | (220,272) |
|  | 42 | Handicapped | 132,003 | 119,790 | (12,213) | 1,865,012 | 1,837,146 | (27,866) |
|  |  |  | 138,067 | 1,066,696 | 928,629 | 16,607,414 | 16,359,276 | (248,138) |
| Total Pupil Transportation |  |  | 1,923,307 | 1,888,155 | (35,152) | 29,396,739 | 28,957,511 | (439,228) |

| Other Expenditures | | | Combined A | Sample C | C-A | Model A | Model C | C-A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 55 | 10 | Anciliary Services | | | | | | |
| | 11 | Operation of Teachers' Residences | 10,421 | 10,421 | 0 | 595,307 | 595,307 | 0 |
| | 31 | Cafeterias | 110,567 | 110,567 | 0 | 197,162 | 197,162 | 0 |
| | 32 | Other (Specify) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 205,022 | 205,022 | 0 |
| | | | 120,988 | 120,988 | 0 | 997,491 | 997,491 | 0 |
| 56 | 10 | Interest Expense | | | | | | |
| | 12 | Capital | | | | | | |
| | | School Construction | 326,959 | 326,959 | 0 | 3,166,752 | 3,166,752 | 0 |
| | | Equipment | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9,741 | 9,741 | 0 |
| | | Service Vehicles | 987 | 987 | 0 | 2,622 | 2,622 | 0 |
| | | Other | 1,918 | 1,918 | 0 | 87,414 | 87,414 | 0 |
| | | | 329,864 | 329,864 | 0 | 3,266,529 | 3,266,529 | 0 |
| | 13 | Current - Operating Loans | 36,139 | 36,139 | 0 | 1,420,887 | 1,420,887 | 0 |
| | 14 | - Supplier Interest Charges | 25,239 | 25,239 | 0 | 44,304 | 44,304 | 0 |
| | | | 61,378 | 61,378 | 0 | 1,465,191 | 1,465,191 | 0 |
| Total Interest Expense | | | 391,242 | 391,242 | 0 | 4,731,720 | 4,731,720 | 0 |
| 57 | 10 | Miscellaneous Expenses | | | | | | |
| 57 | 11 | Miscellaneous (Specify) | 2000 | 2,000 | 0 | 66,691 | 66,691 | 0 |
| Total Current Expenditures | | | 29,921,234 | 29,215,743 | (705,491) | 519,680,563 | 506,351,439 | (13,329,124) |

## Model D - A Rational Non-denominational System

### Organization and Structure

Model D responds to both Term 2 and Term 4 of the Commission's Terms of Reference. It examines the extent of duplication resulting from the denominational system (#4) but also considers the extent to which school districts and schools can be further consolidated (#2). In other words, it presents a picture of what Model C would look like and cost at a maximum level of consolidation of and sharing among schools and school districts; or what Model B would look like if it were implemented without denominational considerations. Within this framework, there would also exist a single set of non-denominational boards, but their number would be reduced to minimum levels. In addition, schools would be consolidated, based upon acceptable parameters for school size, reasonable conditions for student transportation and demonstrated need.

### District Organization

In order to gain insight into the issues associated with school district effectiveness, the following steps were completed: a review of the related literature, the examination of a number of local studies, the development of an independent survey, the completion of a background report on the subject, conducting several focus groups and interviews, and, upon reaching its conclusions, the completion of sensitivity analyses. It was concluded that the ideal operating size of a school district was simply that, *an ideal* - a rather abstract idea that helps to guide the thinking of individuals and groups in their quest for optimum effectiveness. In spite of the vast source of information available, there was no conclusive evidence to suggest any one size can be applied universally. It was evident, rather, that the rationale which must guide the decisions surrounding either the consolidation of existing districts or the formation of new ones, must not be guided by size alone but must consider a range of administrative and educational factors such as the following:

Administrative Factors:

- fiscal conditions
- geographic size
- population dynamics
- community/regional identity
- communication systems
- location of regional services
- climatic conditions
- historical links

Educational Factors:

- needs of children
- school characteristics
- quality of educational services
- nature and extent of central office services
- quality of personnel
- availability of appropriate resources

The goal of a viable school district is to achieve a blend of effective governance and responsible administration within the context of how it delivers educational programs and services. To achieve this end, to ensure equality of educational opportunity, to facilitate effective interaction between the policy side and the delivery side, and to link with the appropriate health care and social services systems, districts must encompass an appropriate geographic area (a community or region).

Translating these conditions into appropriate decisions concerning the number and boundaries of school districts for Model D was not without its difficulties. If, for example, there was consensus among educators regarding the ideal size and nature of school districts or among local officials regarding the best location and types of available services, decisions would be uncomplicated but such consensus does not exist. As a result, priorities had to be established, assumptions made and certain factors weighed against others. Conditions in some districts, however, – such as low or decreasing enrolments, high per-pupil expenditures, lack of adequate resources, few available services, high *per capita* debt, and the close proximity of other districts to which students could be transported – made decisions on restructuring more obvious.

A complete list of the alternative school districts generated for Model D, along with the enrolment, schools, average school size and enrolment in small schools, is presented in Table 20. While the Avalon East district has the largest student population in this model, it is far from the largest geographically. The average district under the model had 14,457 students in 53 schools. A map showing the geographic boundaries of the nine districts under Model D is presented in the Figure 10.

Table 20. Enrolment, Schools, Average School Size, and Small School Enrolment by School District, with Model C Consolidation, Model D.[1]

| School District | Enrolment | Schools | Avg. Size | Small Enrol. | Small % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Avalon East | 38,097 | 87 | 437.9 | 250 | 0.7 |
| Avalon West | 15,737 | 61 | 258.0 | 1,131 | 7.2 |
| Burin Peninsula | 7,372 | 26 | 283.5 | 1,654 | 22.4 |
| Gander-Bonavista | 15,691 | 58 | 270.5 | 1,598 | 10.2 |
| Grand Falls-Green Bay-Bay d'Espoir | 19,152 | 87 | 220.1 | 3,941 | 20.6 |
| Corner Brook-Deer Lake | 11,531 | 43 | 268.2 | 1,552 | 13.5 |
| Stephenville-Port aux Basques | 9,739 | 39 | 249.7 | 1,087 | 11.2 |
| Northern Peninsula-Labrador South | 5,852 | 47 | 124.5 | 2,701 | 46.2 |
| Labrador | 6,938 | 26 | 266.8 | 977 | 14.1 |
| **Provincial Average** | **14,457** | **53** | **261.8** | **1,655** | **145.9** |
| **Total** | **130,109** | **474** | - | **14,891** | - |

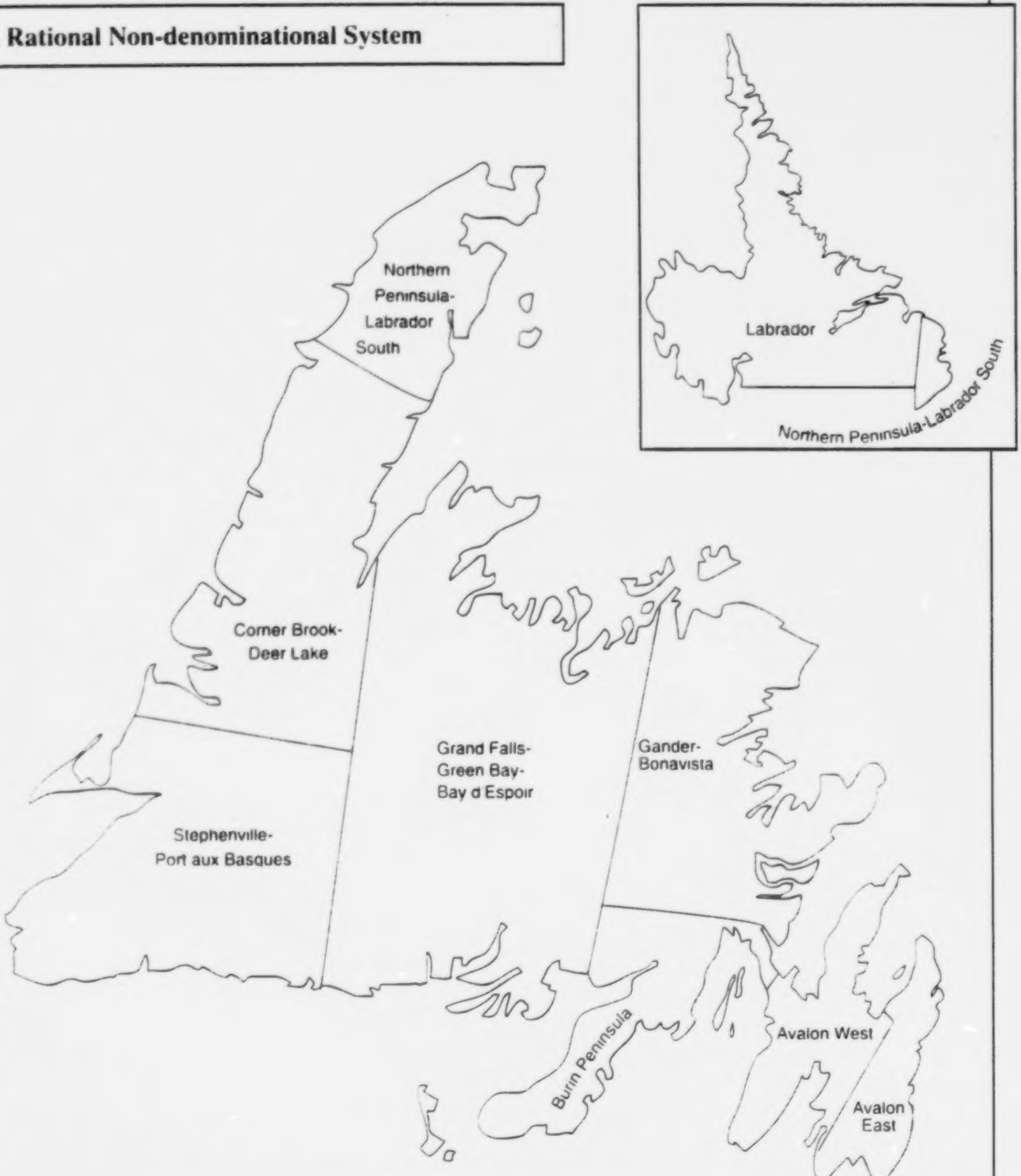
[1] Based on data for the 1989-90 school year.

Table 21 shows the make-up of school districts under Model D with a single set of rationalized boundaries applied across the province. It also shows the number of students by denomination for each district. The composition of the Avalon West and Labrador districts largely resembles the total provincial composition. The Avalon East, Burin Peninsula and Stephenville-Port aux Basques districts have larger Roman Catholic populations, the Gander-Bonavista and Corner Brook-Deer Lake districts have large integrated populations, while the Grand Falls-Green Bay-Bay d'Espoir district has a significant Pentecostal component.

### School Organization.

Measuring the potential for school consolidation again required the establishment of rules to guide the decision-making process. The rules were applied sequentially: first, those developed for Model C (within communities) and then those for Model B (between communities), but ensuring that the same school was not consolidated twice.

**A Rational Non-denominational System**


Labrador
Northern Peninsula-Labrador South
Northern Peninsula-Labrador South
Corner Brook-Deer Lake
Stephenville-Port aux Basques
Grand Falls-Green Bay-Bay d Espoir
Gander-Bonavista
Burin Peninsula
Avalon West
Avalon East

**Model D — School Districts.**

Table 21. Enrolment by School District by Denomination, Model D.

| School District | Actual | % Int. | % RC. | % Pent. | % SDA. | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Avalon East | 38,097 | 39.1 | 58.6 | 1.9 | 0.4 | 100.0 |
| Avalon West | 15,737 | 57.2 | 41.4 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 100.0 |
| Burin Peninsula | 7,372 | 43.9 | 55.1 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 100.0 |
| Gander-Bonavista | 15,691 | 88.0 | 10.7 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 100.0 |
| Grand Falls-Green Bay-Bay d'Espoir | 19,152 | 60.8 | 17.4 | 21.7 | 0.1 | 100.0 |
| Corner Brook-Deer Lake | 11,531 | 67.9 | 27.1 | 4.4 | 0.6 | 100.0 |
| Stephenville-Port aux Basques | 9,739 | 43.4 | 55.1 | 1.5 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Northern Peninsula-Labrador South | 5,852 | 73.3 | 17.3 | 9.4 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Labrador | 6,938 | 59.5 | 39.7 | 0.8 | 0.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 130,109 | 56.2 | 38.6 | 5.0 | 0.2 | 100.0 |

Table 22 presents the allocation policies for teachers, principals and central office personnel for Model D. Based on the same allocations as other models, Model D identified a total of 7,421 school staff, a reduction of 1.4 percent from Model A, and 138 central office staff, down 60.9 percent. The greatest differences between models A and D were the losses of 153 program co-ordinators and 39 assistant superintendents through the consolidation of central offices. Of the teaching units lost to school consolidation, 27 were special education units, 26 were small school units, and 38 were units under the *mean allocation* formula.

## Summary of Costs

Comparative expenditures by model are presented in Table 23. Again, individual boards have not been included. Comparison of each of the models provides a clear depiction of rationalized and non-rationalized, denominational and non-denominational structures and the potential costs and savings that could be expected.

**Administration expenditures**. The greatest savings in the cost of operating and maintaining school board offices can be achieved under Model D. The total cost of operating the nine boards ($13.0 million), is $5.3 million less than the cost of operating the 29 boards under Model A. Most of the savings come from superintendents' salaries and certain economies of scale achieved through the closing of buildings. However, consolidating two boards does not cut the administrative costs in half: Model D reduces the number of boards under Model A by 69.0 percent, yet the total saving is only 28.9 percent.

**Instruction expenditures**. The provision of instruction ($408.0 million) accounts for 81.9 percent of the total cost of Model D, a saving of 3.0 percent compared to costs in Model A. Of that amount, 96.7 percent is committed to salaries and benefits, and 2.3 percent to instructional materials such as textbooks, resource materials, library supplies and teaching aids.

**Operations and maintenance expenditures**. More than seven percent ($3.2 million) savings could be achieved through the consolidation of schools. Of that amount, approximately $1.4 million would be saved through salaries and the remainder through the closure of buildings. The two largest components are the salaries and benefits of janitorial and maintenance staff ($18.8 million), and heat and light ($11.9 million). Repairs and maintenance to buildings and equipment account for another $6.0 million.

**Pupil transportation expenditures**. While some savings in student transportation services are realized under this model, not all school consolidations led to savings. As with Model B, many consolidations led to additional bus routes. However, given the absence of overlapping bus networks and the capability of introducing the highest levels of flexibility and efficiency, these extra routes do not translate into increased in costs as they did in Model B, and there is, in fact, a marginal net decrease of $134,000 compared to Model A.

## Table 22. Academic Allocations by School District, Model D.

| | School Staff | | | | | | | | | | Central Office Staff | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School District | Basic | Guid. | Lib. | Small | Mean | Native | French | Spec Ed. | Total | Prin. | Supt. | Asst. | Co-ord | Total | Alloc. |
| Avalon East | 1,657.2 | 38.1 | 38.1 | 3.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 209.5 | 1,946.7 | 93.5 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 2,056.2 |
| Avalon West | 684.6 | 15.7 | 15.7 | 17.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 110.2 | 843.1 | 43.0 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 902.1 |
| Burin Peninsula | 320.7 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 24.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 51.6 | 411.9 | 20.5 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 9.0 | 14.0 | 446.4 |
| Gander-Bonavista | 682.6 | 15.7 | 15.7 | 24.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 109.8 | 847.8 | 45.0 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 908.8 |
| Grand Falls-Green Bay-Bay d'Espoir | 833.1 | 19.2 | 19.2 | 59.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 134.1 | 1,064.6 | 58.0 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 1,138.6 |
| Corner Brook-Deer Lake | 501.6 | 11.5 | 11.5 | 23.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 80.7 | 628.6 | 32.5 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 677.1 |
| Stephenville-Port aux Basques | 423.7 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 16.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 7.0 | 68.2 | 534.6 | 29.5 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 580.1 |
| Northern Peninsula-Labrador South | 254.6 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 40.5 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 43.9 | 354.7 | 20.5 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 8.0 | 13.0 | 388.2 |
| Labrador | 301.8 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 14.7 | 0.0 | 44.8 | 2.4 | 48.6 | 426.1 | 20.5 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 9.0 | 15.0 | 461.6 |
| Total | 5,659.7 | 130.1 | 130.1 | 223.4 | 4.0 | 44.8 | 9.4 | 856.5 | 7,058.0 | 363.0 | 9.0 | 43.0 | 86.0 | 138.0 | 7,559.0 |

C01

C02

Table 23. School Board Expenditures for Total Province, All Models.

| Current Expenditures | | | Model A | Model B | Model C | Model D | Savings D-C | Savings D-B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Administration Expenditures | | | | | | | |
| 51 | 11 | Salaries & Wages (Gross) | 11,675,338 | 10,475,472 | 9,132,323 | 7,817,370 | (1,314,952) | (2,658,102) |
| | 12 | Employee Benefits | 986,744 | 885,337 | 771,820 | 660,687 | (111,134) | (224,650) |
| | 13 | Office Supplies | 477,997 | 454,097 | 431,392 | 409,823 | (21,570) | (44,274) |
| | 14 | Office Furniture & Equipment | 93,280 | 88,616 | 84,185 | 79,976 | (4,209) | (8,640) |
| | 15 | Postage | 227,471 | 216,097 | 205,293 | 195,028 | (10,265) | (21,070) |
| | 16 | Telephone | 653,492 | 620,817 | 589,777 | 560,288 | (29,489) | (60,530) |
| | 17 | Office Equipment Rentals and Repairs | 413,788 | 413,788 | 413,788 | 413,788 | 0 | 0 |
| | 18 | Bank Charges | 139,242 | 139,242 | 139,242 | 139,242 | 0 | 0 |
| | 19 | Electricity | 259,140 | 246,183 | 233,874 | 222,180 | (11,694) | (24,003) |
| | 21 | Fuel | 52,561 | 49,933 | 47,436 | 45,064 | (2,372) | (4,868) |
| | 22 | Insurance | 62,532 | 59,405 | 56,435 | 53,613 | (2,822) | (5,792) |
| | 23 | Repairs & Maintenance (Office Building) | 190,819 | 181,278 | 172,214 | 163,603 | (8,611) | (17,675) |
| | 23 | Travel | 923,405 | 831,065 | 747,958 | 673,162 | (74,796) | (157,902) |
| | 25 | Board Meeting Expenses | 290,075 | 261,068 | 234,961 | 211,465 | (23,496) | (49,603) |
| | 26 | Election Expenses | 107,028 | 107,028 | 107,028 | 107,028 | 0 | 0 |
| | 27 | Professional Fees | 403,701 | 322,961 | 258,369 | 206,695 | (51,674) | (116,266) |
| | 28 | Advertising | 269,458 | 242,512 | 218,261 | 196,435 | (21,826) | (46,077) |
| | 29 | Membership Dues | 323,618 | 258,894 | 207,116 | 165,692 | (41,423) | (93,202) |
| | 31 | Municipal Service Fees | 10,406 | 10,406 | 10,406 | 10,406 | 0 | 0 |
| | 32 | Rental of Office Space | 105,388 | 94,849 | 85,364 | 76,828 | (8,536) | (18,021) |
| | 33 | Relocation Expenses | 41,061 | 123,183 | 164,244 | 205,305 | 41,061 | 82,122 |
| | 34 | Miscellaneous | 498,445 | 435,398 | 385,927 | 336,459 | (49,468) | (98,939) |
| | Total Administration Expenditures | | 18,204,989 | 16,517,630 | 14,697,412 | 12,950,138 | (1,747,274) | (3,567,492) |

| | | Instruction Expenditures | | Model A | Model B | Model C | Model D | D-C | D-B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 52 | 10 | Instructional Salaries (Gross) | | | | | | | |
| | 11 | Tchrs' Sal/Benfits | - Reg | 385,284,447 | 379,823,647 | 376,983,547 | 371,181,372 | (5,802,175) | (8,642,275) |
| | 12 | | - Substitute | 12,640,731 | 13,272,768 | 13,936,406 | 14,633,226 | 696,820 | 1,360,459 |
| | 13 | | - Board Paid | 1,638,521 | 1,638,521 | 1,638,521 | 1,638,521 | 0 | 0 |
| | 14 | Augmentation | | 1,300,000 | 1,300,000 | 1,300,000 | 1,300,000 | 0 | 0 |
| | 15 | Employee Benefits | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 16 | School Secretaries | - Salaries | 5,004,730 | 4,754,494 | 4,516,769 | 4,290,930 | (225,838) | (463,563) |
| | 17 | | - Benefits | 596,338 | 596,338 | 596,367 | 591,219 | (5,148) | (5,119) |
| | 18 | Other (Specify) | | 870,303 | 870,303 | 870,383 | 870,303 | (80) | 0 |
| | | | | 407,335,070 | 402,256,070 | 399,841,992 | 394,505,571 | (5,336,421) | (7,750,499) |
| 52 | 40 | Instructional Materials | | | | | | | |
| | 41 | General Supplies | | 2,809,396 | 2,949,866 | 3,097,359 | 3,252,227 | 154,868 | 302,361 |
| | 42 | Library Resource Materials | | 1,408,587 | 1,479,016 | 1,552,967 | 1,630,616 | 77,648 | 151,599 |
| | 43 | Teaching Aids | | 3,242,530 | 3,242,530 | 3,242,530 | 3,242,530 | 0 | 0 |
| | 44 | Textbooks | | 1,194,768 | 1,194,768 | 1,194,768 | 1,194,768 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | 8,655,281 | 8,866,180 | 9,087,624 | 9,320,141 | 232,516 | 453,960 |
| 52 | 60 | Instructional Furniture & Equipment | | | | | | | |
| | 61 | Replacement | | 986,228 | 986,228 | 986,242 | 920,926 | (65,315) | (65,302) |
| | 62 | Rentals and Repairs | | 826,497 | 826,497 | 826,670 | 854,046 | 27,376 | 27,549 |
| | | | | 1,812,725 | 1,812,725 | 1,812,912 | 1,774,972 | (37,939) | (37,753) |
| 52 | 80 | Instructional Staff Travel | | | | | | | |
| | 81 | Program Co-ordinators | | 704,330 | 535,500 | 465,500 | 301,000 | (164,500) | (234,500) |
| | 82 | Teachers' Travel | | 333,110 | 319,786 | 306,994 | 294,714 | (12,280) | (25,071) |
| | 83 | In-service and Conferences | | 760,722 | 730,293 | 701,081 | 673,038 | (28,043) | (57,255) |
| | | | | 1,798,162 | 1,585,579 | 1,473,576 | 1,268,753 | (204,823) | (316,826) |
| 52 | 90 | Other Instructional Costs | | | | | | | |
| | 91 | Postage and Stationery | | 395,762 | 379,932 | 364,734 | 350,145 | (14,589) | (29,787) |
| | 92 | Miscellaneous | | 701,410 | 729,466 | 758,645 | 788,991 | 30,346 | 59,524 |
| | | | | 1,097,172 | 1,109,398 | 1,123,379 | 1,139,136 | 15,756 | 29,738 |
| | Total Instructional Expenditures | | | 420,698,410 | 415,629,952 | 413,339,483 | 408,008,572 | (5,330,911) | (7,621,380) |

| | | Operations & Maintenance Expenditures - Schools | | Model A | Model B | Model C | Model D | D-C | D-B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 53 | 11 | Salaries - Janitorial | | 14,599,199 | 14,070,887 | 13,951,174 | 13,567,691 | (383,483) | (503,195) |
| | 12 | - Maintenance | | 3,536,956 | 3,408,961 | 3,379,959 | 3,287,052 | (92,907) | (121,909) |
| | 13 | Employee Benefits | | 2,126,875 | 2,049,908 | 2,032,468 | 1,976,600 | (55,867) | (73,308) |
| | 14 | Electricity | | 9,492,341 | 9,148,834 | 9,070,998 | 8,821,659 | (249,339) | (327,176) |
| | 15 | Fuel | | 3,336,877 | 3,216,123 | 3,188,761 | 3,101,110 | (87,651) | (115,013) |
| | 16 | Municipal Service Fees | | 411,806 | 396,904 | 393,527 | 382,710 | (10,817) | (14,194) |
| | 17 | Telephone | | 1,279,639 | 1,233,332 | 1,222,839 | 1,189,226 | (33,613) | (44,106) |
| | 18 | Vehicle Operating and Travel | | 379,456 | 365,724 | 362,613 | 352,645 | (9,967) | (13,079) |
| | 19 | Janitorial Supplies | | 1,411,352 | 1,360,278 | 1,348,705 | 1,311,633 | (37,073) | (48,646) |
| | 21 | Janitorial Equipment | | 95,390 | 91,938 | 91,156 | 88,650 | (2,506) | (3,288) |
| | 22 | Repairs and Maintenance | - Buildings | 6,337,011 | 6,107,689 | 6,055,726 | 5,889,269 | (166,457) | (218,420) |
| | 23 | | - Equipment | 157,267 | 151,576 | 150,286 | 146,155 | (4,131) | (5,421) |
| | 24 | Contracted Services | - Janitorial | 980,735 | 945,244 | 937,202 | 911,441 | (25,761) | (33,803) |
| | 25 | Snow Clearing | | 864,996 | 833,694 | 826,601 | 803,880 | (22,721) | (29,814) |
| | 26 | Rentals | | 462,588 | 445,848 | 442,055 | 429,904 | (12,151) | (15,944) |
| | 27 | Other (Specify) | | 112,035 | 107,981 | 107,062 | 104,119 | (2,943) | (3,862) |
| | | Total Operations & Maintenance | | 45,584,523 | 43,934,921 | 43,561,131 | 42,363,744 | (1,197,387) | (1,571,177) |

| | | Pupil Transportation Expenditures | Model A | Model B | Model C | Model D | D-C | D-B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 54 | 10 | Operation & Maintenance of Board Owned Fleet | | | | | | |
| | 11 | Salaries - Administration | 369,721 | 390,346 | 364,197 | 369,721 | 5,524 | (20,625) |
| | 12 | - Drivers and Mechanics | 5,932,581 | 6,263,539 | 5,843,940 | 5,932,581 | 88,641 | (330,958) |
| | 13 | Employee Benefits | 684,979 | 723,192 | 674,744 | 684,979 | 10,235 | (38,213) |
| | 14 | Debt Repayment - Interest | 1,190,554 | 1,256,971 | 1,172,765 | 1,190,554 | 17,789 | (66,417) |
| | 15 | - Principal | 1,458,070 | 1,539,411 | 1,436,284 | 1,458,070 | 21,786 | (81,341) |
| | 16 | Bank Charges | 5,178 | 5,467 | 5,101 | 5,178 | 77 | (289) |
| | 17 | Gas and Oil | 1,602,746 | 1,692,157 | 1,578,799 | 1,602,746 | 23,947 | (89,411) |
| | 18 | Licenses | 129,241 | 136,451 | 127,310 | 129,241 | 1,931 | (7,210) |
| | 19 | Insurance | 143,394 | 151,393 | 141,251 | 143,394 | 2,143 | (7,999) |
| | 21 | Maintenance - Fleet | 804,809 | 849,706 | 792,784 | 804,809 | 12,025 | (44,897) |
| | 22 | - Building | 33,925 | 35,818 | 33,418 | 33,925 | 507 | (1,893) |
| | 23 | Tires and Tubes | 181,476 | 191,600 | 178,764 | 181,476 | 2,712 | (10,124) |
| | 24 | Heat and Light | 61,829 | 65,278 | 60,905 | 61,829 | 924 | (3,449) |
| | 25 | Municipal Service | 5,942 | 6,273 | 5,853 | 5,942 | 89 | (331) |
| | 26 | Snow Clearing | 18,820 | 19,870 | 18,539 | 18,820 | 281 | (1,050) |
| | 27 | Office Supplies | 21,712 | 22,923 | 21,388 | 21,712 | 324 | (1,211) |
| | 28 | Rent | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 29 | Travel | 23,674 | 24,995 | 23,320 | 23,674 | 354 | (1,321) |
| | 31 | Professional Fees | 20,033 | 21,151 | 19,734 | 20,033 | 299 | (1,118) |
| | 32 | Miscellaneous | 55,218 | 58,298 | 54,393 | 55,218 | 825 | (3,080) |
| | 33 | Telephone | 22,185 | 23,423 | 21,854 | 22,185 | 331 | (1,238) |
| | 34 | Capital Expenditure Out of Current | 23,238 | 24,534 | 22,891 | 23,238 | 347 | (1,296) |
| | | | 12,789,325 | 13,502,796 | 12,598,235 | 12,789,325 | 191,090 | (713,471) |
| 54 | 40 | Contracted Services | | | | | | |
| | 41 | Regular Transportation | 14,742,402 | 15,564,828 | 14,522,130 | 14,646,093 | 123,963 | (918,735) |
| | 42 | Handicapped | 1,865,012 | 1,969,054 | 1,837,146 | 1,827,322 | (9,824) | (141,732) |
| | | | 16,607,414 | 17,533,882 | 16,359,276 | 16,473,415 | 114,139 | (1,060,467) |
| | | Total Pupil Transportation | 29,396,739 | 31,036,678 | 28,957,511 | 29,262,740 | 305,229 | (1,773,938) |

| Other Expenditures | | | Model A | Model B | Model C | Model D | D-C | D-B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 55 | 10 | Ancillary Services | | | | | | |
| | 11 | Operation of Teachers' Residences | 595,307 | 595,307 | 595,307 | 595,307 | 0 | 0 |
| | 31 | Cafeterias | 197,162 | 197,162 | 197,162 | 197,162 | 0 | 0 |
| | 32 | Other (Specify) | 205,022 | 205,022 | 205,022 | 205,022 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | 997,491 | 997,491 | 997,491 | 997,491 | 0 | 0 |
| 56 | 10 | Interest Expense | | | | | | |
| | 12 | Capital | | | | | | |
| | | School Construction | 3,166,752 | 3,166,752 | 3,166,752 | 3,166,752 | 0 | 0 |
| | | Equipment | 9,741 | 9,741 | 9,741 | 9,741 | 0 | 0 |
| | | Service Vehicles | 2,622 | 2,622 | 2,622 | 2,622 | 0 | 0 |
| | | Other | 87,414 | 87,414 | 87,414 | 87,414 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | 3,266,529 | 3,266,529 | 3,266,529 | 3,266,529 | 0 | 0 |
| | 13 | Current - Operating Loans | 1,420,887 | 1,420,887 | 1,420,887 | 1,420,887 | 0 | 0 |
| | 14 | - Supplier Interest Charges | 44,304 | 44,304 | 44,304 | 44,304 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | 1,465,191 | 1,465,191 | 1,465,191 | 1,465,191 | 0 | 0 |
| Total Interest Expense | | | 4,731,720 | 4,731,720 | 4,731,720 | 4,731,720 | 0 | 0 |
| 57 | 10 | Miscellaneous Expenses | | | | | | |
| 57 | 11 | Miscellaneous (Specify) | 66,691 | 66,691 | 66,691 | 66,691 | 0 | 0 |
| Total Current Expenditures | | | 519,680,563 | 512,915,083 | 506,351,439 | 498,381,096 | (7,970,343) | (14,533,986) |

## V. CONCLUSIONS

Two concerns central to the Commission's Terms of Reference were addressed in this section of the report. The first was the Commission's mandate to examine the extent of the duplication attributable to the denominational structure of schooling, and the second was to determine the extent to which schools and school districts could be further consolidated. Answers to both questions were needed for the Commission to complete the rest of its work and to inform the public about the efficiency of the present school system.

To address these issues a system was formulated for classifying and examining the problem along two dimensions. The first dimension was governance and consisted of two categories: a denominational category and a non-denominational category. The second dimension was operational performance and, again, was examined through two alternative categories: the current level of organizational efficiency and a proposed level of increased efficiency.

Since each dimension had two discrete categories and there were two dimensions, four types of school systems could be examined and cost differences between types could be estimated in order to ascertain the relative efficiencies of each type. The four empirical categories were given the labels Model A, Model B, Model C and Model D. Both A and B were models of a denominational system corresponding to the existing system with its four denominational categories: Integrated, Roman Catholic, Pentecostal and Seventh Day Adventist. What distinguished Models A and B was the organizational effectiveness or operational performance dimension. Model A was the status quo; that is, the model based on prevailing (1989-90) efficiencies. Model B was based on the efficiencies proposed in the Commission's Terms of Reference - maximum sharing and maximum consolidation. It is useful to note, then, that any efficiencies gained by Model B over Model A would be efficiencies *within* the existing denominational structure.

In contrast to Models A and B, Models C and D were non-denominational models. This is not to say that Models C and D could not be connected with religion, only that for governing purposes denominations would no longer have legalized monopolistic control. All classes of persons, including religious persons not of the founding denominations, and those with no religion, would be equally eligible to participate in school board elections and as members of school councils. Model C, while non-denominational, was in every other respect organized along the same lines as Model A, the *status quo*. One could regard Model C as being of academic interest only because no one would advocate establishing an inefficient organization. Model D, on the other hand, was a non-denominational model which maximized the sharing of services, like Model B, *and* the consolidation of schools, as in Model C.

The comparative costs of the four types of school systems are presented in Figure 8.7. Model A, the actual situation in 1989-90, cost $519.7 million; Model B, the denominational system with maximum sharing and consolidation, would have cost $512.9 million; Model C, the non-denominational model with 1989-90 efficiencies, would have cost $506.4 million; and Model D, the non-denominational model with maximum sharing and consolidation, would have cost $498.4 million.

The comparative savings between various combinations of Models is illustrated in Figure 8.8. In theory, there would be significant savings in a streamlined denominational system, Model B, which could result in a $6.8 million reduction from the *status quo*, but more considerable savings would be gained by adopting Model D, the non-denominational model with maximum consolidation, with savings of approximately $21.3 million a year.

The next critical question, then, is *which* components of the school system account for the

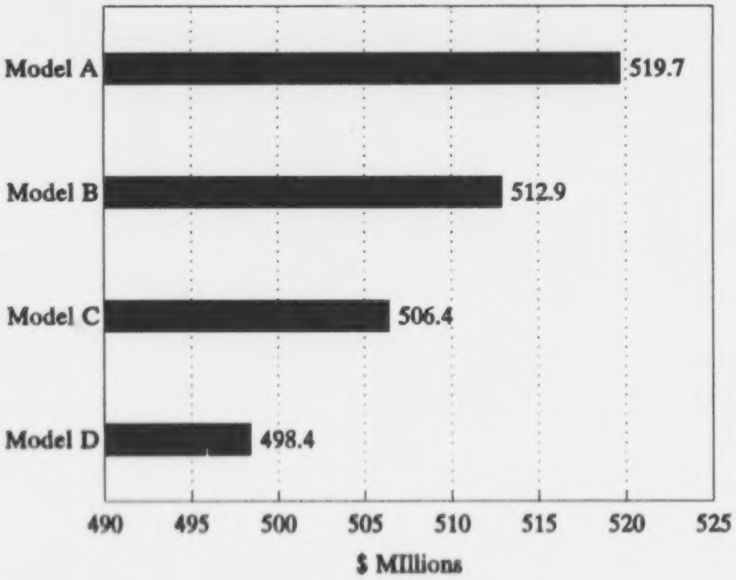


Figure 11. Total Operating Costs under Each Model, 1989-90.

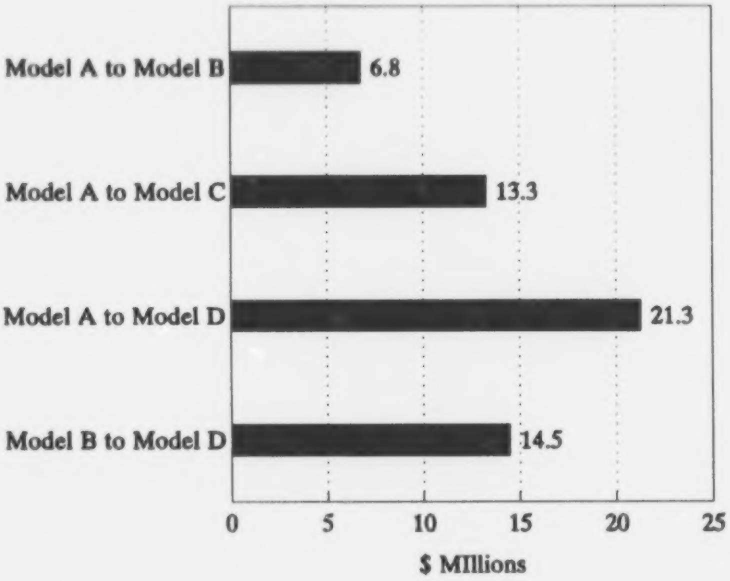


Figure 12. Differences between Individual Models, 1989-90.

increased efficiency of Model D over Model B; that is, what efficiency is the result of the non-denominational system alone. Each model was broken down into five components for costing purposes: administration expenditures, instruction expenditures, operations and maintenance expenditures, transportation expenditures, and other expenditures. Although the largest of these expenditures, by a factor of six, is the instruction category (mainly teachers' salaries) most of the savings in Model D were from savings on central office staff salaries. Comparisons between the two models show that under the basic formula there were no savings in classroom teaching salaries, but that the salary for 47 school staff positions could be saved along with the salary for 100 central office staff positions, primarily through the consolidation of small schools and the type of formula used to allocate special education personnel. This is indicative of the somewhat inflated administrative structure of the existing school system. While the differences between Models B and D account for 147 salary units, the total difference between the status quo and the most efficient systems, Models A and D, account for savings of 320 salary units.

The other alternative is to streamline the denominational model and leave it at that. The savings would be about $6.8 million, or $52 per student, and the number of teaching and administrative jobs lost would be at a minimum. While the system would not be the most efficient possible, it would preserve the historic *denominational governing structure*, safeguard teaching jobs, and maximize sharing and consolidation, at least to the degree it is possible within the denominational framework. However, it cannot be assumed that Newfoundlanders wish to preserve the historic denominational system.

If it is agreed that the system has to be changed in some way to make it more efficient and to better rationalize the use of our scarce educational resources, the true alternatives become Models B and D and the real issue becomes one of how *much* change is best. It is one thing to describe an ideal system and another to prescribe it. In this section the overwhelming emphasis was on describing the costs of schooling, given specified assumptions about structure and organization.

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*PART VIII*

# Public Opinion about Education

In order to obtain a broad, unbiased picture of current public attitudes on issues relating to denominational education, a scientifically designed public opinion survey was administered. Every effort was made to secure and safeguard the highest methodological standards of public opinion research. The survey was based on a random sample of 1,001 individuals equally distributed throughout the province according to population base. Upon completion, Mark Graesser (chapter 21) and Jeffrey Bulcock (chapter 22) were asked to analyze the findings.

Chapter 21

# ATTITUDES TOWARD DENOMINATIONAL EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND

Mark Graesser

## I. INTRODUCTION

### Purpose of the survey

As part of its broad mandate to inquire into the framework and operation of our education system at the primary, elementary and secondary levels, the Royal Commission has had to face squarely questions concerning the denominational structure of that system. In part, these are questions of duplication of services and structures, and costs arising from these. But the denominational character of the system is far more than an abstract system of administration to be assessed only on grounds of "efficiency." It incorporates or symbolizes for many Newfoundland citizens, both supporters and detractors, important values. For supporters of the system, these include devotion to church and religion, a commitment to morality in rearing the young, and a patriotic pride in institutions which have evolved uniquely on Newfoundland's rocky soil. Detractors have charged that the system embodies unwarranted religious discrimination and segregation, and attenuates individual human and civil rights otherwise guaranteed by provincial and national codes. The Commission thus deemed it vital that its deliberations on this subject be concluded with the fullest possible knowledge of the views of the citizens and parents as a whole. These were expressed in the numerous written and oral submissions to the Commission. But a balanced view of public opinion required that the briefs and petitions of particularly interested groups and individuals be supplemented with a broader inquiry.

It is appropriate to quote here from the introduction to another recent survey report prepared by Dr. Robert Crocker and Charlotte Strong for the Task Forces on Mathematics and Science Education and on Educational Finance:

> In Canada, education is a provincial responsibility. In the most fundamental way, therefore, the education system belongs to the citizens of each province. Citizens have both the right and the responsibility to participate in decision-making related to educational matters. While it is true that professional educators must apply their expertise in helping shape educational policy, it is elected representatives of the public who are ultimately responsible for policy decisions. Both provincial legislators and school board members are elected by the public to serve their educational interests. It is therefore important for such representatives to have a clear sense of the public will as they deliberate on educational policy issues. [Here, we must also include Royal Commissioners, with even greater emphasis.]
>
> This is where public opinion surveys can serve as an important tool in educational decision-making. Properly conducted, such survey are the most systematic way of obtaining a reading of the views of citizens at large. Surveys can serve as an alternative to the representations of special interest groups, letters to politicians and public servants, editorials, radio open line programs, and the variety of other means by which it can be

said, within a known margin of error, that the views of the entire population, rather than those of special interest groups, have been represented.[1]

In order to obtain a broad, unbiased picture of current public attitudes on issues relating to denominational education, the Royal Commission therefore commissioned a scientifically designed survey. The author of this report participated in the design of the survey, together with Royal Commission research staff and the polling firm which conducted the interviews. The present report is based upon an independent analysis of the results from that survey. The analytical focus, interpretations and conclusions are entirely those of the author, developed from the professional perspective of considerable previous research on this question, and on the study of public opinion generally.

### Description of the survey

The survey was designed to meet the highest methodological standards for this technique. (A full description of the sampling and interviewing procedures will be found in Appendix A of this report.) It is based on a random sample of 1,001 individuals equally distributed throughout the province. Such a sample can be expected to represent percentages accurately to within plus or minus 3.3 percent of true population values, 19 times out of 20. For most percentages, the sample and population will differ by a narrower range than this on purely statistical grounds. Such estimates of sampling error do not override the possibility of measurement error; care in questionnaire design and administration are the best safeguards against this form of distortion. Comparison of the sample characteristics with population profiles obtained from the Census show a very close match. No difficulties arose during administration of the questionnaire which would give grounds for concern that respondents misunderstood or rejected questions or the survey itself at an unusual level. By all scientific and professional criteria, therefore, we may regard the this survey as a reliable gauge of public opinion, subject primarily to interpretation of the "meaning" of the questions and responses.

The persons in the sample were contacted and interviewed by telephone within a span of about two weeks in September, 1991. The questionnaire used in the study was designed partly to include items used in previous surveys, in order to permit comparisons and trend analysis. But the Royal Commission on Education Survey (RCE Survey) went beyond any previous questionnaire in the comprehensive range of questions dealing with *specific dimensions* of denominational education. (The full questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix B, the *Survey Codebook.*) Analysis of these numerous supplementary questions adds substantially--even dramatically--to the picture revealed in previous, more limited instruments.

### How the information is presented

The report is largely descriptive in nature, intended to present as clear a picture as possible of the patterns which emerge from the data. In general, this entails reporting the exact wording of survey questions when summarizing results, because this wording is important for the interpretation any discerning reader will place upon the findings. However, the statistical aspects of the presentation have been simplified for clarity. Within the body of the report, results are given as percentages, rounded to whole numbers. These are calculated *excluding* "don't know," "no opinion" and "refused" responses. Responses in these missing categories were few, usually in the range of 2 to 8 percent. Their exclusion permits consistent comparisons among those expressing an opinion, and is therefore conventional in public opinion analysis except where the "don't know" category itself becomes so large as to take on substantive importance, e.g. greater than 10 percent. (It should be noted that the absence of "open-end" questions in the survey reduced the "no opinion" response.) In addition, the summary text, tables and charts do not make a distinction between "strongly agree/disagree" and "agree/disagree" responses. Full response frequencies for every question may be found in Appendix B.

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[1] *Public Opinion on Education: A Newfoundland Survey.* Research Report #7, Task Force on Mathematics and Science Education/Task Force on Education Finance (June, 1989), p. 1.

**Summary of the principal findings**

Section 2 summarizes responses to a number of questions on citizen interest and involvement in education matters, and assessment of schools generally, without reference to the denominational character of the system. Here we find:

- 56% of the sample now have children in school or of pre-school age.
- 79% expressed "very high" interest in education, up from 60% in 1986.
- 17% had attended a school meeting in the past year, but 44% said they would be willing to serve on a school board or council.
- 35% would give local schools an "A" grade, and 47% "B", considerably higher than Gallup Poll figures for Canadians as a whole

Section 3 of the report focuses on a question intended to measure the overall preference of the respondent for the present denominational system or a "non-denominational" system. Similar "omnibus" preference or approval questions have been asked in a number of previous surveys, permitting us to identify trends. However, this requires caution because of the apparent sensitivity of responses to subtle differences in wording. Section 3 reports overall results for this central question, and also breaks down the response according to the respondent's degree of involvement in education, religion, and other social characteristics. Principal findings include:

- 60% of respondents stated they would prefer a "non-denominational system"; 40% would prefer to keep the present denominational system. (These percentages exclude 8% with no opinion.)
- This level is an increase from about 55% favouring a "single public system" recorded in 1979 and 1986 surveys.
- Preference for a non-denominational system was lowest among respondents who considered *this issue* very important, but increased slightly as *overall interest in education* increased. There was little difference between parents and non-parents of school-age children.
- System preference varied sharply in accordance with the report card rating of schools; as the "grade" went down from A to B, C and D, preference for a non-denominational system increased.
- System preference differs substantially by religion; the percentages favouring a non-denominational system were:

| | |
|---|---|
| Pentecostal | 18% |
| Roman Catholic | 47% |
| Salvation Army | 56% |
| Anglican | 73% |
| United Church | 77% |
| Other religion | 79% |
| None | 100% |

- Breakdowns by other social characteristics revealed that more than 50% of all categories preferred a non-denominational system. Within this range, the following segments were more likely to prefer a non-denominational system: men, persons with post-secondary education, and residents of larger communities, and persons in the 25 to 64 age range.

Section 4 of the report presents responses to some 22 additional questions on specific dimensions of the denominational system. These findings substantially modify the picture obtained from the single omnibus question in Section 3. Some features are supported by large majorities; many others, including the fundamental structures of a system divided on religious grounds, are rejected, also by very large majorities.

- **Features the majority would like to see *retained***

| | |
|---|---|
| Teaching religion in school | 77% |
| Teachers expected to exemplify "religious values and standards" | 88% |
| "Church rights" preserved | 75% |
| Churches "involved" in school boards | 60% |

- ***Changes* endorsed by a majority**

| | |
|---|---|
| Teaching religion in multi-denominational setting | 70-85% |
| Teaching religion by teacher of another denomination | 74% |
| No denominational restriction on hiring teachers | 81% |
| Allow board members of non-recognized denominations | 82% |
| Single school bus system in each area | 85% |
| Single, joint school boards in each area | 87% |
| Single school system for all children | 79% |
| All children attend the same schools | 85% |

It is striking that in most cases, these majority opinions represent a consensus that incorporates at least 50 percent of respondents in *all* the major denominational groups. The principal exception to this pattern, but only for some questions, is the tendency of a majority Pentecostals to support certain key features of the present system. The conclusion from Section 4 is that a large majority of the Newfoundland public "favours a unified non-sectarian system, but not one that is wholly secular."

Section 5 concludes the report by analyzing more closely the apparent divergence between the comparatively even division of opinion (60 to 40 percent) registered by the general question in Section 3 (and similar questions in other surveys), and the very large majorities arising from more focused questions reported in Section 4. Majorities even of those advocating a non-denominational system expressed approval of religious content in school life and church "involvement" in administration. But, on the other hand, it is noted that *among those respondents who initially stated a preference for keeping the denominational system,*

responses to subsequent questions showed that:

- 64% favoured a single public system for all;
- 66% disagreed with the idea that children should attended separate schools by religion;
- 67% said that all children should attend the same schools;
- 72% stated that the denominations should operate joint boards.

The report therefore concludes that much of the generalized support for the "denominational system" is "in name only," a generalized, perhaps sentimental attachment to the distinctive Newfoundland education system with which most people grew up. Most respondents apparently still value the elements of morality and discipline which they may associate with religion and church involvement. But only very small minorities support retention of the principal structural elements of the denominational system.

## II. INTEREST AND INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION

A starting point for the examination of public opinion on the major policy questions facing the Royal Commission is to describe the degree to which parents and citizens at large are involved with the education system. Several questions were asked for this purpose, some of them repeated from the 1986 CBC survey to permit comparison. In Table 1 we see, first, that 47 percent of all respondents reported that they are parents of children now in school, and another 9 percent have children of pre-school age. To the questions "How interested are you in education?" 79 percent rersponded "very interested," a substantial increase from the 60 percent figure in 1986. To measure the extent to which general interest is translated into direct involvement, respondents were asked if they had attended a school related meeting during the past year, other than a parent-teacher interview. Seventeen percent responded that they had done so, including about 7 percent who had been to a PTA or Home and School Association meeting. (The higher 1986 figure, 25 percent, may reflect the fact that the wording did not include the exclusion of parent-teacher interviews.)

Table 1. Personal interest in schools and education.

| | *1991* | *1986* |
|---|---|---|
| CHILDREN IN SCHOOL | | |
| Children now in school | 47% | 49% |
| Pre-school children only | 9 | 6 |
| Neither | 44 | 43 |
| INTEREST IN EDUCATION[1] | | |
| Very interested | 79% | 60% |
| Somewhat interested | 16 | 33 |
| Not very interested | 5 | 7 |
| ATTENDED SCHOOL MEETING IN PAST YEAR[2] | | |
| Yes | 17% | 25% |
| No | 83 | 75 |

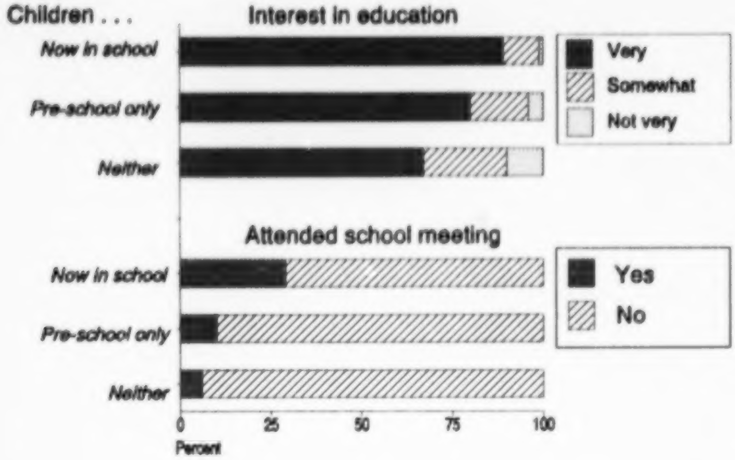
[1] *In general, how interested would you say you are in education? Would you say you are very interested, somewhat interested, or not very interested?*

[2] *During the past year, other than a parent-teacher interview, have you attended any meeting concerned with schools, such as the Home and School Association or School Board?* The 1986 question did not include the restriction "*other than a parent-teacher interview*".

Figure 1 shows that both the expressed level of interest and the liklihood of attending a school meeting is, as expected, related to parental status. Among parents with children now in school, 89 percent claimed to be "very interested" and 29 percent to have attended a meeting in the past year. Pre-school parents were somewhat less interested, but 10 percent had a meeting.

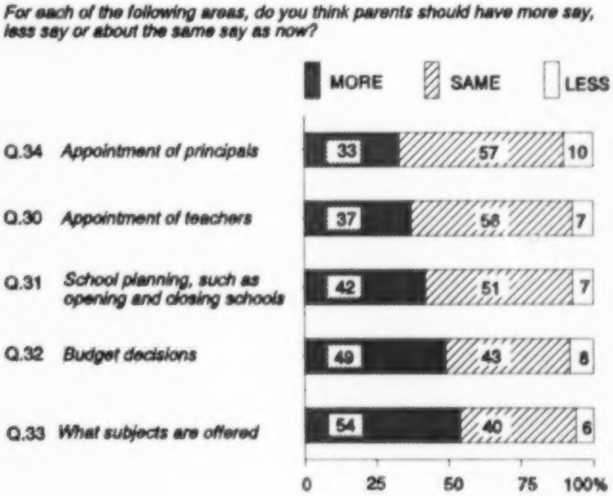
Going beyond present levels of general interest and involvement, interviewers asked the respondents whether they felt parents should have more influence in decisions affecting the operation of schools. The pattern of responses to these questions is shown in Figure 2. In general, from one-third to half of all respondents call for "more say" by parents, but these figures differ significantly according to the type of decision. The area attracting the highest level of interest is the curriculum ("what subjects are offered"), followed by "budget decisions" and school planning, such as opening and closing schools." Respondents were least concerned that parents should be involved in personnel decisions, the appointment of teachers and principals. These responses varied somewhat according to parental status, with pre-school

FIGURE 1. Interest and meeting attendance by parental status



parents most interested in having "more say," and persons without school or pre-school aged children least concerned.

FIGURE 2. Parental involvement in education decisions



Finally, the survey respondents were asked if they would be willing to serve as members of a school board. As we see in Table 2, a large proportion, 44 percent, said "yes." These included 48 percent of current parents and 61 percent of per-school parents.

Table 2. Willing to serve on school board?

*Would you be willing to serve if nominated for election to school board or a local school council?* (Q37)

| | Total | *Children in school?* Yes | Pre-school | No |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | 44% | 48% | 61% | 37% |
| No | 55 | 52 | 39 | 63 |

Although there is no absolute standard by which to judge these figures, overall they indicate a high level of interest, and a desire for greater involvement by both parents and citizens at large. There would appear to be ample potential for continuing to expand upon the democratic reforms in the governance and consultative structures of school boards.

**Grading general school performance**

At the beginning of the interview, respondents were asked to evaluate schools in their community by giving them a grade. This "report card" is shown in Table 3. By this measure, schools are well-regarded. 82 percent of respondants rate schools either "A" or "B", an increase from 74 percent in 1986. Using an identical measure, the Gallup Poll in 1986 found that schools scored lower with the Canadian public as a whole: 61 percent "A" or "B". The generous marks were highest among respondents with children now in school, 87 percent "A" or "B". Parents of pre-school children rated schools lowest, with only 18 percent awarding an "A", and 53 percent "B". On the face of it, this would appear to be a good report card. However, this may be consistent with a pattern to which we shall return later in this paper, a tendency among the respondents to react positively to *general* references to our schools and education system, but to call into question more specific components.

Table 3. "Report Card" on local schools

*Students are often given the grades A,B,C,D or Fail to show the quality of their work. If the schools in your community were graded in the same way, what grade would you give them - A, B, C, D, or Fail?*

| GRADE | 1991 | 1986 | 1986[1] |
|---|---|---|---|
| A | 35% | 20% | 19% |
| B | 47 | 54 | 42 |
| C | 14 | 19 | 28 |
| D | 2 | 4 | 6 |
| Fail | 2 | 3 | 5 |

[1] Canada (Gallup poll)

## III. ATTITUDES TOWARD THE DENOMINATIONAL SYSTEM AS A WHOLE

### Preference for keeping the "denominational system" versus changing to a "non-denominational system"

The Newfoundland denominational education system combines a number of distinct features in a unique form which evolved over more than one-hundred years. Although it encompasses all schooling in the province below the post-secondary level, it is manifested differently within the major denominational sectors, and in different localities. It involves objective elements of curriculum and structure, the details of which may be little known to most citizens. But it also has strong symbolic and emotive ties to church and country for many Newfoundlanders. It is thus an unwieldy "object" about which to measure public attitudes. As a starting point in this exercise, the survey respondents were asked a general question which was nearly identical in wording with questions which had been asked in several previous province-wide studies. The wording and responses were as follows:

*As you know, Newfoundland has an education system organized along denominational lines. The following questions mainly concern your views about this system.*

Question 6 [Rotate alternate wording]

A. *Some people feel that Newfoundland should switch from its present denominational school system to one that is non-denominational. Others feel that Newfoundland should keep the denominational system. Which system do you prefer?*

B. *Some people feel that Newfoundland should keep the present denominational school system. Others feel that Newfoundland should switch from the present system to one that is non-denominational. Which system do you prefer?*

| | Question Form | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Response | A | B | Total |
| Keep denominational | 42.5% | 36.8% | 39.6% |
| Switch to non-denominational | 57.5 | 63.2 | 60.4 |
| (N=100%) | (457) | (457) | (914) |

No opinion: 8.7% of all respondents

The primary conclusion from responses to this question is that a majority of approximately 60 percent of the Newfoundland population would prefer to change from the present denominational system to one which is "non-denominational," if given that blunt choice. Later in this report, we shall examine how respondents regarded a number of specific dimensions of denominational education, and thereby assess more fully the implications of replying one way or the other to this global question. However, at this point we should also note the sizable difference in response patterns to the alternative wording patterns. Respondents were more likely to say they preferred the *second* of the two alternatives by a margin of about six percent. Thus, the proportion for switching to a non-denominational system rises from 57.5 to 63.2 percent between the A and B forms. This suggests that opinions of some respondents were "soft" or malleable in relation to the specific "stimulus" offered by the question. It should be remembered that they were being asked to respond in an "either-or" fashion on a very complex issue, early in the interview before the various dimensions of that issue had been raised. In this regard, however, it is also noteworthy that fewer than nine percent reported "no opinion," and interviewers found that most respondents were prepared to answer the question readily. The fact that the two forms were asked in rotation to random half-samples allows us to take the *combined* results as an unbiased measure of overall opinion. It is the combined measure which will be referred to for Question 6 throughout this report unless otherwise stated.

The wording in this question was chosen in part to match questions used in several pervious surveys. In March, 1991 C.B.C. News reported results from a nearly identical question included in the February, 1991 Regional Omnibus Survey by Corporate Research Associates. A random sample of about 400 throughout Newfoundland was interviewed by telephone, using the same A/B alternatives quoted above, except that the word "maintain" was used instead of "keep." Results were as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Maintain denominational system* | | 27% |
| *Switch to non-denominational* | | 73% |
| Don't know | (8%) | |

In several previous surveys designed by Mark Graesser, a question was used which adopted the same basic format of offering respondents the alternative of "keep" or "change":

> *As you know, Newfoundland has a denominational education system, in which schools are organized by religion and come under church control. In your opinion, should Newfoundland keep its present denominational system or change to one public system without church control?*

Figure 3 shows the results of 1979 and 1986 province-wide surveys using this format in comparison with the 1991 RCE survey. The 1979 survey was conducted by the Memorial University Political Science department, with a mail-back sample of 1,580. The 1986 survey was designed and directed by Mark Graesser on behalf of the C.B.C. public affairs program *On Camera*, and involved telephone interviews with a random sample of 418. Overall, this figure indicates that public opinion on the basic choice of educational systems has been divided in favour of changing to a non-denominational system by a small margin throughout the past decade. The 1979 and 1986 surveys both showed a spread of about ten percent between the two alternatives, excluding "don't know" responses (15 percent in 1979 and 8 percent in 1986). This increased to a 20 percent difference in the 1991 RCE survey. However, because the two previous studies used a single form of wording which placed the "change" alternative second, the 1991 "B" wording may be more comparable, indicating a slightly greater shift from the previous survey. To summarize, about 56 percent of the public favoured "changing to a single public system" in 1979 and 1986. In 1991 this increased to 60 percent, but the magnitude of change may be greater if minor differences in question wording are taken into account.

FIGURE 3. Attitudes toward denominational education: Results from three provincial surveys, 1979-1991

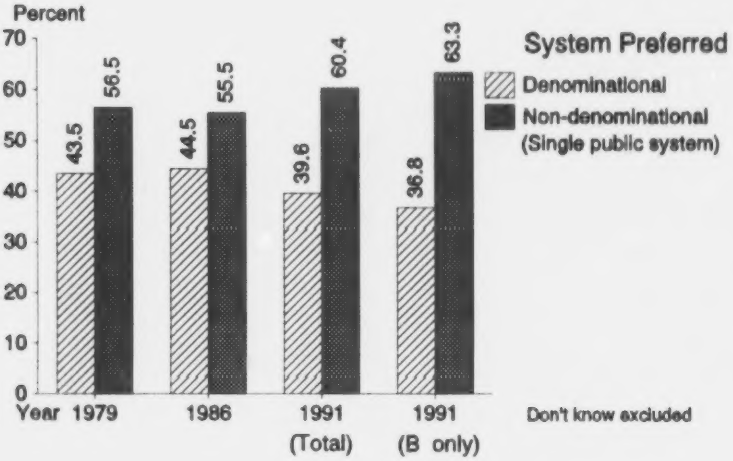


Table 4. Attitudes toward denominational education in St. John's, 1976-1991

| | (1)<br>1976 | (2)<br>1979 | (3)<br>1985 | (4)<br>1986 | (5)<br>1989 | (6)<br>1990 | (7)<br>1991 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Keep denominational system | 45% | 46% | 48% | 41% | 36% | 38% | 43% |
| Change to single public system | 55% | 56% | 52% | 59% | 64% | 62% | 57% |
| Don't know | (9%) | (8%) | (8%) | (9%) | (12%) | (8%) | (9%) |
| Sample size | 108 | 220 | 209 | 67 | 166 | 231 | 144 |

All studies directed by Mark Graesser, and all conducted under the auspices of the Department of Political Science, Memorial University of Newfoundland, except number 4, which was conducted for the CBC *On Camera* program. All were based on probability samples drawn from voters lists or (number 4) the telephone system.

1. 1976 St. John's West By-election Survey (November 1976)
2. 1979 Newfoundland Elections Study (June 1979)
3. 1985 St. John's City Election Survey (November 1985)
4. Attitudes toward Denominational Education in Newfoundland (Oct. 1986)
5. 1989 St. John's Political Attitude Survey (November 1989)
6. 1990 St. John's Political Attitude Survey (November 1989)
7. 1991 St. John's Political Attitude Survey (November 1989)

A number of smaller survey studies in St. John's conducted throughout this period, using the same question as the 1979 and 1986 provincial surveys, have revealed a similar pattern, shown in Table 4. Other surveys have measured public attitudes toward the education system by a somewhat different question format, asking for approval or disapproval of the present system rather than a choice between it and an alternative. Province-wide surveys directed by Dr. P.J. Warren in 1978 and 1983 included the such a question to measure general attitudes toward the denominational system:

> *Newfoundland has a denominational system of education. To what extent do you agree with this system?*

| | 1978 | 1983 |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 15% | 15% |
| Agree | 28 | 32 |
| Undecided | 25 | 21 |
| Disagree | 17 | 18 |
| Strongly disagree | 12 | 13 |
| No response | 3 | 1 |

In both Warren surveys, 60 percent of those expressing an opinion "agreed" with the denominational system, and 40 percent "disagreed," compared with a 45 to 55 percent ratio for the earlier surveys in Figure 3. As I have explained previously, the most likely sources of this difference lies in the question wording. The Warren surveys prompt the respondent only on the extent to which they "agree" with the present system, not offering an alternative. The amount of difference between the "A" and "B" alternatives in the RCE survey suggest that on this issue many respondents are sufficiently malleable to be swayed by this "affirmation bias" in wording.

A province-wide survey conducted in 1988 for the Task Force on Mathematics and Science Education and the Task Force on Education Finance included a question which partially balanced the options:

> *As you know, Newfoundland has a system of denominational school boards and denominational schools. In your opinion, should Newfoundland keep this system to change to some other system?*

| | |
|---|---|
| Keep denominational system | 57% |
| Change to some other system | 43% |
| No opinion | (2%) |

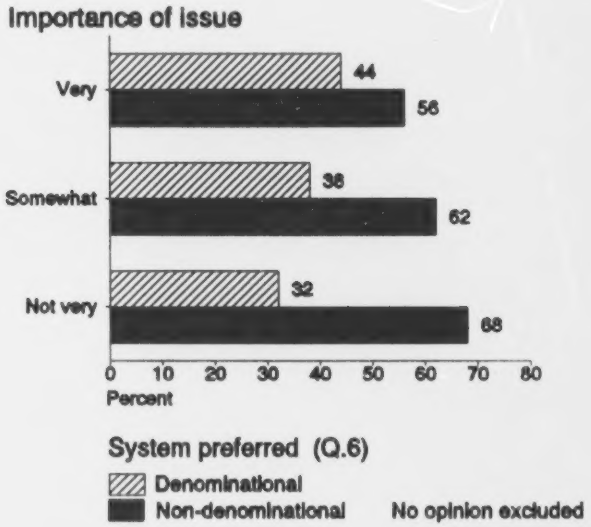
Although this question offers the option of "a change" to the respondent, it is to an unspecified "some other system." The earlier Graesser surveys reported above offered the alternative of "a single public system without church control," while the 1991 RCE survey offered a "non-denominational system." These more descriptive terms constitute a more semantically balanced option to the present Newfoundland denominational system which is the only alternative described in the Warren and Task Force surveys.

The purpose of this discussion is not to argue that any particular question is more correct than another, but rather to suggest that the differences in the results from the eight surveys summarized in Figure 3 and Table 4, and those reported from the Warren and Task Force surveys, probably arise from basic differences in question wording than from real shifts in public opinion. The reaction of the general public to a single question on this complex, and for many, obscure topic seems to be particularly susceptible to apparently subtle differences in question wording. As we shall see in Section 4, this analysis of the 1991 RCE survey results will place less reliance on the single "omnibus" question than on an array of questions focusing on more specific, tangible aspects of the school system. However, before turning to these additional items, we shall consider a number of factors which may be related to the basic preference for denominational versus non-denominational systems.

## System preferred in relation to interest and involvement

Respondents were asked "*How important is this issue to you?*", referring to the choice between denominational and non-denominational education in Question 6. Overall, 40 percent responded that it was "very important," 42 percent "somewhat," and 18 percent "not very important." Figure 4 shows how these three categories differed in their response to Question 6. The pattern is clear: those who considered the issue most importance were more likely to favour retaining the denominational system. However, the differences are not great, and more than half of all importance levels preferred non-denominational education. Figure 5 goes on to relate Question 6 to general interest in education. The pattern reverses from Figure 4, in that respondents who were "very interested" were *most* likely to favour change to non-denominational schooling. Again, these differences are not great.

FIGURE 4. System preferred by importance of issue



Another indicator of potential involvement and concern is whether or not the respondent has children now in school, or younger children who will attend school in the near future. In Figure 6 we see that this factor does not bear a notable relationship to the general issue of system preference, although parents of current school children were slightly more likely to favour retention of the denominational system. However, in Figure 7 we see that the way in which respondents assessed the schools in their community has a marked effect on there views of the denominational system. In general, those who gave the schools "high marks" were most likely to support the present denominational system, while low grades brought a much higher percentage in favour of changing to non-denominational schools. Bearing in mind the fact that more that 80 percent of respondents awarded "A" or "B" grades, it is significant that the choice of the denominational system drops by 12 percent between these levels.

In summary, various forms of concern or involvement with schools and education issues have little impact on the question of keeping or changing the system, but expressed satisfaction and dissatisfaction with school performance is associated with marked differences on the denominational question.

FIGURE 5. System preferred by general interest in education

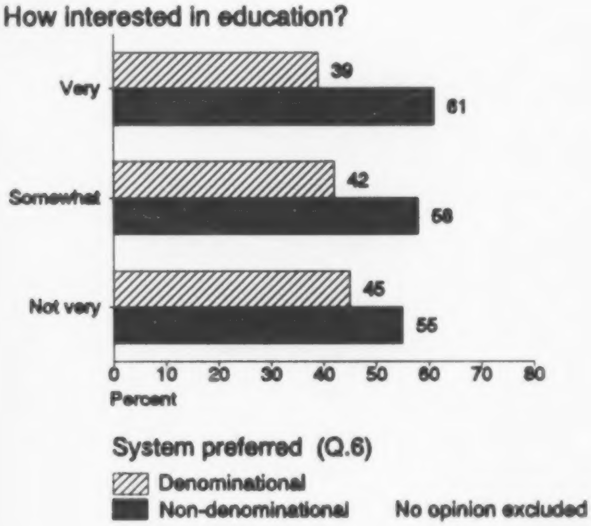
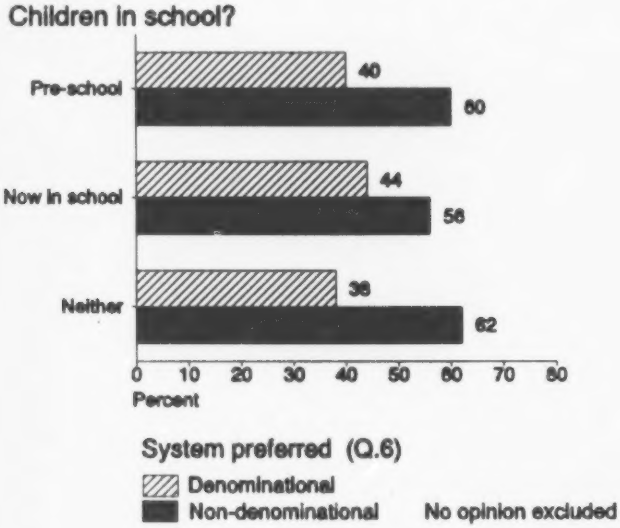


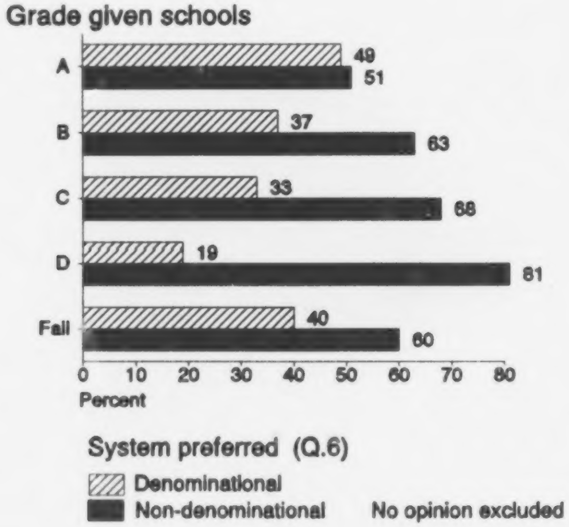
FIGURE 6. System preferred by children in school



**Religious denomination and preference for denominational or non-denominational education**

The denominational structure is founded on the premise that there is an important link between the educational and religious missions in society. Yet, despite the fact the all of the larger denominations have long been participants in the system, the different denominations have officially viewed the system

FIGURE 7. System preferred by evaluation of local schools



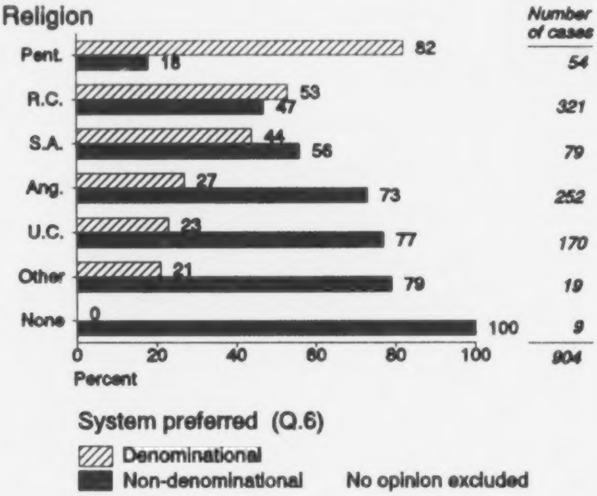
from different perspectives. In the nineteenth century, the Roman Catholics and Methodists initially tended to resist the sectarian division of public schools. In this century, the United Church continued officially to stand in favour of a single public system, although of necessity it participated in the legally ordained division of schools into the hands of the three principal denominations. The Protestant denominations apart from the Pentecostal Assemblies culminated a tendency toward "amalgamation" by joining in the Integrated Education Council at the time of the 1968 Education Act. Meanwhile, Roman Catholic and Pentecostal leaders have been most forthright in asserting the value of the system as a means of preserving the distinctive elements of their respective philosophies of Christian education. It is therefore highly significant to ask whether such official differences are matched by religious differences among the general public in their attitudes toward the denominational system. In assessing these differences, it is well to note the proportions each of these groups represents within the total population, which were very closely matched by the survey sample.

TABLE 5. Religious denominations in Newfoundland

| Denomination | 1981 Census | Survey Sample |
|---|---|---|
| Roman Catholic | 36.2% | 35.3% |
| Anglican | 27.2 | 27.7 |
| United Church | 18.6 | 19.3 |
| Salvation Army | 9.0 | 8.0 |
| Pentecostal | 6.6 | 5.8 |
| Other religion | 2.3 | 2.0 |
| No Religion | 1.0 | 0.9 |

Figure 8 shows the breakdown of responses to Question 6 by religion. Clearly there are marked differences among the five major denominations. By far the most supportive of keeping the denominational system--by a five to one margin--are the Pentecostals. Roman Catholics supported the present system by a small majority, 53 to 47 percent. The remaining three denominations, who together are the primary partners in the Integrated system, were in favour of "changing to a single public system" by a combined margin of 72 to 28 percent. At 44 percent, Salvation Army adherents were most supportive of the present system. The Anglican and United Church groups were far behind, at 27 and 23 percent, respectively, in favour of the status quo. Members of religious faiths other than these five were even less likely to support the denominational system at 21 percent, and none of the respondents claiming no religion took this position. (Percentages in these latter two categories are based on only 19 and 9 respondents, respectively.)

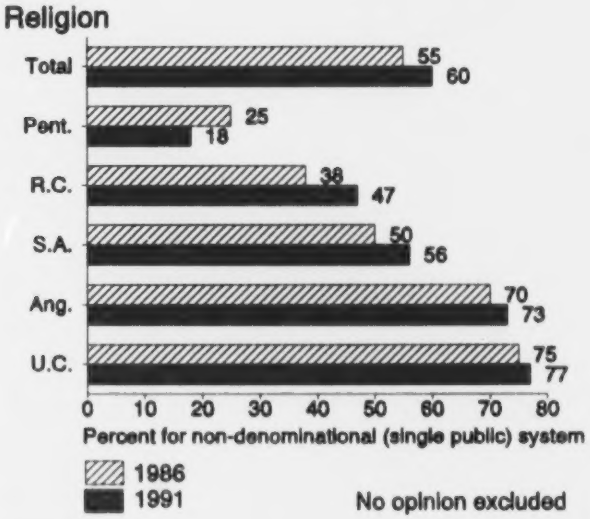
FIGURE 8. System preferred by religion



The pattern in Figure 8 is not surprising. Previous studies of public attitudes have shown an identical tendency for the denominations to fall into the same rank order in the proportions favouring denominational versus non-denominational schooling. Figure 9 compares the religious breakdown in the 1986 CBC study with that in the present data. It shows that during the intervening five years Pentecostals declined about 6 percent in their support for a single public system, while all other denominations shifted in favour of that position. But these changes were marginal, while the overall pattern remained the same. Perhaps the group in these two figures which is of greatest interest are the Roman Catholic respondents. Among this group there was a shift from 38 to 47 percent preferring a single public system, leaving them in a position in 1991 approaching an even division on this question, and relatively much closer to the Integrated denominations.

A related question is whether the "religiosity" of a person, commitment to religion as distinct from nominal identification with a denomination, affects his or her educational preferences. Two standard questions were asked in the RCE survey to measure the extent of regular involvement in the organized life of the church: frequency of church attendance, and whether the respondent attended in the previous week. Overall, the Newfoundland sample reported levels of attendance slightly above average

FIGURE 9. Preference for non-denominational system by religion, 1986-1991



figures for Canadians as a whole. About one-third reported going to church at least weekly, and a similar number had attended in the previous week. About 20 percent placed their attendance at "once or twice a month." The remaining 45 percent ranged from "several times a year" to "never." Figure 10 shows a distinct relationship between this variable and the position adopted on the question of denominational education. Among those who attend church every week, more than half support the denominational system. This figure drops to 43 percent for monthly church-goers, and 28 percent of those who attend less frequently or never.

Figure 11 shows the combined effects of religion and frequency of church attendance on attitudes toward denominationalism. In this chart the percentage of each religion who prefer denominational system is shown separately for those who report attending church regularly (at least every month, 55 percent of the sample), and those who rarely or never attend. Among the latter group, only Pentecostals are above the fifty percent margin in favour of denominational schools, whereas a majority of active Catholic and Salvation Army adherents, as well as Pentecostals, take this position. Frequency of attendance makes relatively little difference in the educational preferences of Anglican and United Church respondents.

A different perspective on the religious breakdown of attitudes is taken in Figure 12. Here the sample is divided into those who have children now in school or of pre-school age, and those who do not. Recall that in Figure 6, this factor had relatively little effect on the attitudes of the sample *overall*. In Figure 12 we observe that the relevance of having school or pre-school children varies among the denominations. For Pentecostal, Salvation Army and United Church adherents it makes relatively little difference. But among Catholics, those *without* such children were more likely to prefer denominational education by a margin of 58 to 49 percent over those *with* school or pre-school children. The opposite pattern appears among Anglicans, where those *with* children supported denominational schools by a margin of 32 to 20 percent. In sum, among the two denominations which registered overall majority support for the denominational system, parents of school or pre-school children were less supportive, and the opposite was true for the other three denominations as a whole.

FIGURE 10. System preferred by church attendance

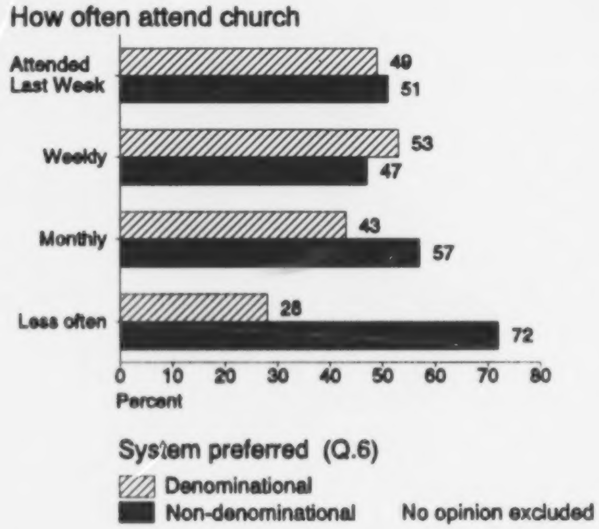
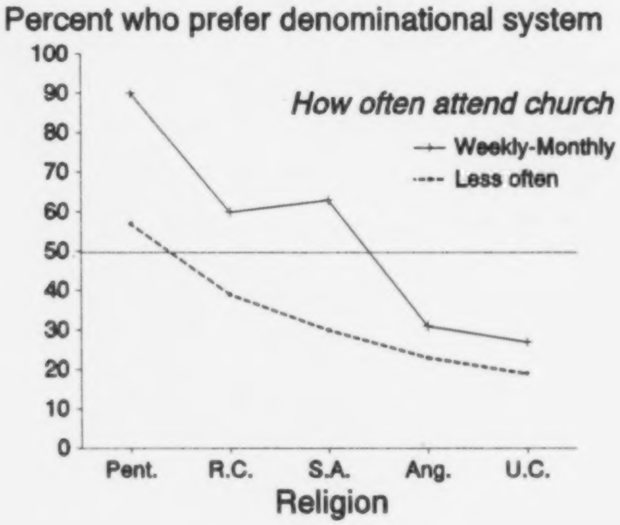


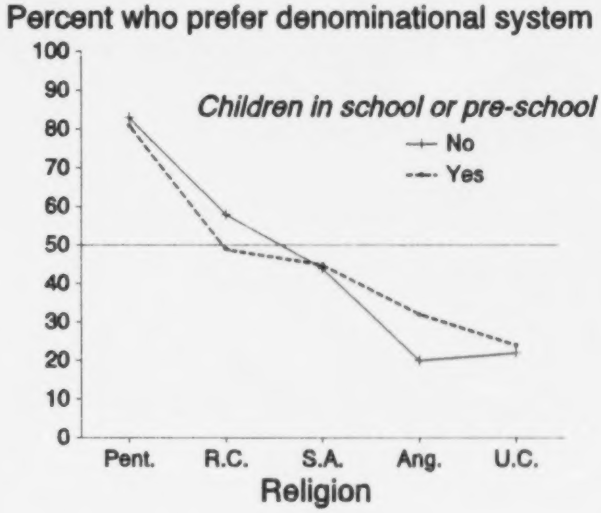
FIGURE 11. Preference for denominational system by religion and church attendance



**System preference by other social characteristics**

The next four charts show the breakdown of repones to Question 6 by other characteristics of the respondents: sex, age, education and size of community. Women were more likely than men, by a twelve percent margin, to support retention of the denominational system, but an overall majority of both

FIGURE 12. Preference for denominational system by religion and parental status



groups (55 and 67 percent) nonetheless opted for non-denominational schools (Figure 13). All age categories except those 65 and older preferred a non-denominational system, with relatively little variation (Figure 14). Figure 15 shows a striking tendency for the non-denominational choice to increase with education, from 54 percent among those with no high school to more than 70 percent for all post-secondary groups. Finally, Figure 16 reveals a slight difference between urban and rural residents. About 57 percent of the respondents in communities less than 2,500 supported non-denominational schools, compared with about 64 percent in larger towns and cities. In general, these trends are consistent with frequently observed patterns of public opinion in Newfoundland which show women, older and less educated persons, and rural residents to be slightly more "conservative" on political and social issues than their counterparts.

## IV. Attitudes toward specific features of the denominational system

The denominational system of education in Newfoundland encompasses a number of distinguishable features at the local school, board and provincial levels. In Section 3 of this report, we examined responses to a single general question which, in effect, forced a choice between this system as a whole and an alternative "non-denominational" system. There are two problems with this approach. First, and most obviously, it denies respondents the opportunity to distinguish *those aspects* of the system which they particularly support or reject, underlying their overall choice. Although a majority of respondents preferred the non-denominational alternative, there is no reason to suppose that every one of these individuals rejects every "denominational" feature of the system. Equally, those who opted for keeping the denominational system do not necessarily reject changing or eliminating some of its elements. Secondly, we noted that responses to a single, all-encompassing question seem to be susceptible to subtle variations in wording. To address both of these issues, the RCE survey included some twenty additional questions focused on specific dimensions of denominational education, far more than any previous study. These allow us to pinpoint features which have the greatest and the least support among the public. They

FIGURE 13. System preferred by sex

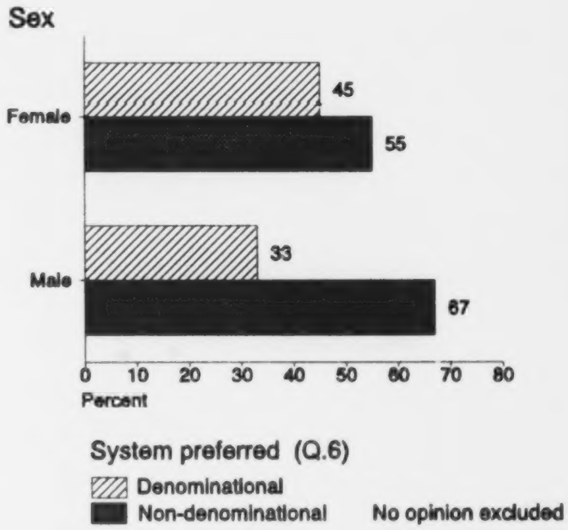
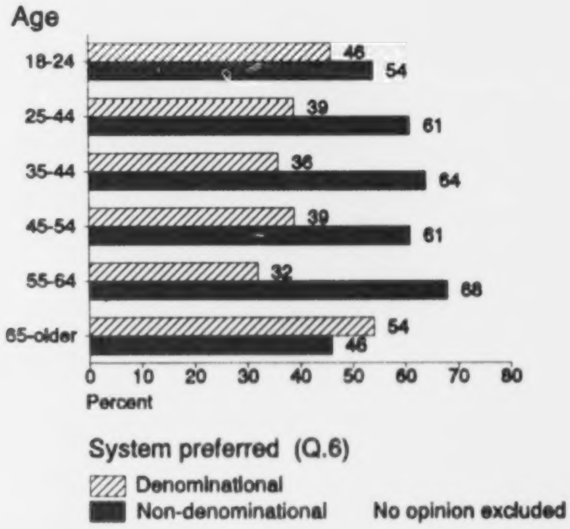


FIGURE 14. System preferred by age



also provide a more valid and reliable guide to public opinion in that they ask respondents to focus upon distinct, concrete topics one-by-one rather than taking a sweeping overview of a "system" which may mean different things to different people. A standard rule in the measurement of attitudes on abstract or complex topics is to use "multiple indicators," and then to assess the aggregate weight of responses to the set of questions as a whole. For this purpose, some repetition or apparent redundancy (as in the questions which follow) is a virtue.

FIGURE 15. System preferred by education

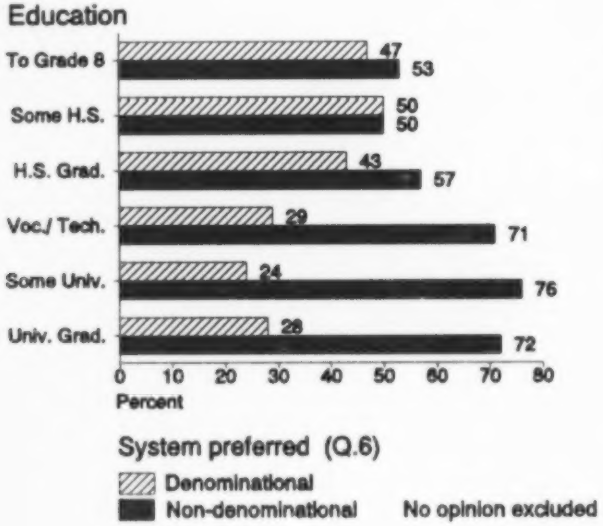
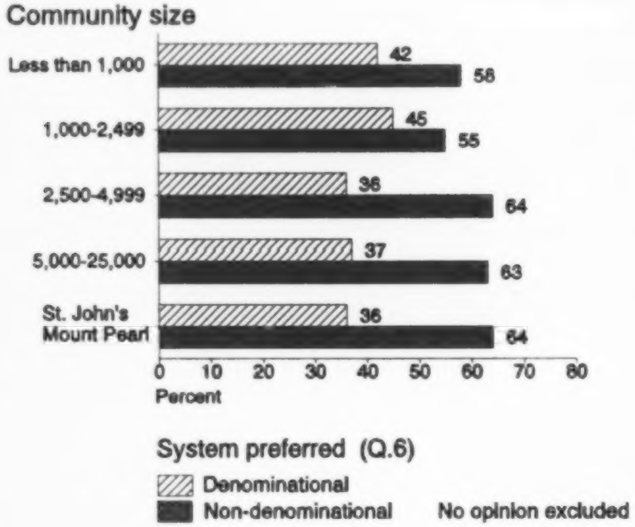


FIGURE 16. System preferred by community size



For clarity the results from the numerous specific questions will be presented in five groupings, roughly speaking from "bottom to top," from the classroom to the structure of boards and the system as a whole:

1. Religious content in the curriculum and classroom.
2. Religious characteristics of teachers.

3. Separation or mixing of children of different religions.
4. Operation of separate schools by denomination.
5. Rights of churches to operate separate school boards.

It will be apparent that these topics overlap and intersect with one another, but that they cover most of the salient features of the Newfoundland system. (Perceptions of finances and costs are not included.) The questions are grouped into five tables. The exact wording of each question is given, together with the response percentages for the full sample, excluding "don't know" and "refused" responses. (The latter responses may be found in the Codebook, Appendix B. They rarely exceed 4 percent of all responses.) As well, because the responses to the general issue, as measured by Question 6, were significantly related to the religion of the respondents, a small graph is presented with each question in this section to show the breakdown of answers by religion.

### Teaching religion in school

Perhaps the primary rationale for the denominational system is that it assures that students will receive religious training in school. Such religious content may take both broad and narrow forms. Broadly, it may imply giving specific attention to moral and spiritual development of children through a religious education courses, but also throughout the curriculum and the "ambience" of the school. Narrowly, it can mean instruction in the tenets of a specific faith. A strictly "secular" and "non-sectarian" school system would exclude the latter, of course. It might also be thought to exclude or diminish the broader forms of religious and moral education, although this a question on which both interpretation and practice might vary.

In Table 6 we report results from three questions concerning the teaching of religion in school. By a very large margin, 77 to 23 percent, most respondents agreed that "teaching religion in school gives a better overall education." Members of all denominations agreed on this point. (The identical question was asked in the 1986 CBC survey, with similar results: 72 percent agreed.) However, in answer to other questions, most respondents (70 percent) stated that religious education should *not* be restricted to the beliefs of the child's own religion, and 85 percent endorsed teaching "beliefs and practices of all religions" in school. It should be noted that Pentecostal and Catholic respondents were more likely to affirm that children should be taught only their own religion, 49 and 43 percent, respectively. But this still left a majority of every denominational category rejecting exclusivity in religious instruction.

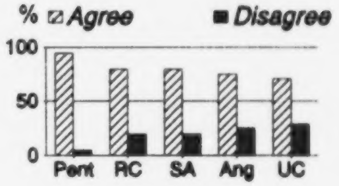
### Religious characteristics of teachers

The denominational framework presently requires that all teachers be endorsed for certification by one of the Denominational Education Councils, and reserves to school boards the right to apply religious and "lifestyle" criteria in employing and dismissing teachers. Court decisions have upheld the latter right as a "bona fide employment requirement" overriding non-discrimination clauses in the Human Rights and Charter of Rights codes. The rationale for reserving these administrative rights to Denominational Councils and school boards is that they may be necessary to assure that the total educational environment has an appropriate religious and moral character, extending beyond the inclusion of religious studies in the curriculum. But the religious and lifestyle strictures on teachers have been they target of criticism on the ground they constitute an unjustifiable limitation on the individual rights of teachers.

TABLE 6.
Attitudes toward teaching religion in school

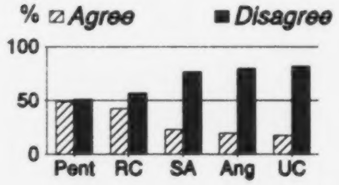
Teaching religion in school gives a better overall education. (Q10)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 77% |
| *Disagree* | 23% |



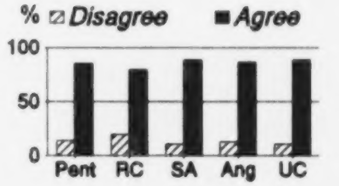
Children should be taught in school on the beliefs only of their own religion. (Q13)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 30% |
| *Disagree* | 70% |



Children should be taught in school about beliefs and practices of all religions. (Q18)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 85% |
| *Disagree* | 15% |



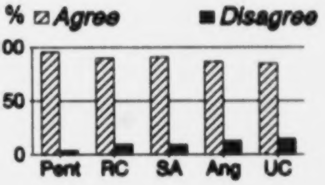
The survey included three questions on this topic, as reported in Table 7. To the general statement that "teachers have a responsibility to show a commitment to religious values and standards," 88 percent of all respondents agreed. On the other hand, 74 percent said they would "not object at all" to their child being taught religion by a teacher of another denomination. This included at least 60 percent of respondents in every denominational group. Moreover, 81 percent of respondents *disagreed* with the right of boards to refuse to hire teachers not of the board's religion. Pentecostals divided evenly on this point, but between 72 and 85 percent of the other denominational groups gave a "disagree" response. (The same question was asked in the 1986 CBC survey, with identical results: 81 percent overall disagreed.) The pattern of results among these three questions seems to be consistent with those on teaching religion. Respondents felt that there should be a general or diffuse commitment to "religious values and standards," but for the great majority this is not translated into specific denominational terms. Indeed, these survey responses imply a high level of sectarian openness and tolerance toward teachers.

TABLE 7

Attitudes toward religious characteristics of teachers

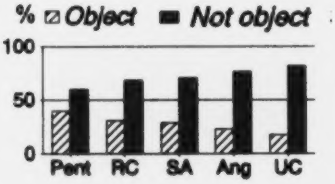
Teachers have a responsibility to show a commitment to religious values and standards. (Q19)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 88% |
| *Disagree* | 12% |



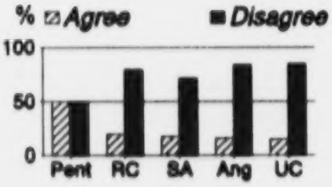
If a child of yours were to be taught religion by a qualified teacher of another denomination, would you say you would strongly object, mildly object, or not object at all? (Q27)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Strongly object* | 10% |
| *Mildly object* | 16% |
| *Not object at all* | 74% |



School boards should have the right to refuse to hire teachers if they are not of the board's religion. (Q11)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 19% |
| *Disagree* | 81% |



**Separation or mixing children of different religions**

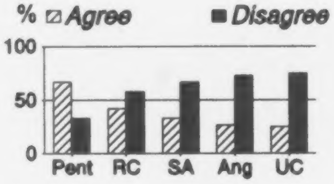
A general principle underlying the denominational system is that children in general should be segregated into schools primarily attended by others of their own religion. For practical and personal reasons, of course, there are exceptions to this policy. But rules directing children to attend schools on denominational criteria rather than those of location or program preference have also been a source of controversy. Table 8 contains the results from four questions on this general feature of the system. Two-thirds of all respondents *disagreed* with the proposition that "differences among the churches justify having separate denominational schools." As a group, Pentecostals differed on this point, with 67 percent agreeing. Between 58 and 75 percent of the other denominations disagreed. In the same vein, 82 percent disagreed that "it is best for children to go to separate schools according to their religion." (51 percent of Pentecostals agreed.)

TABLE 8

Attitudes toward separation of children of different religions

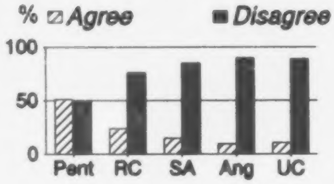
The differences among the churches justify having separate denominational schools. (Q20)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 34% |
| *Disagree* | 66% |



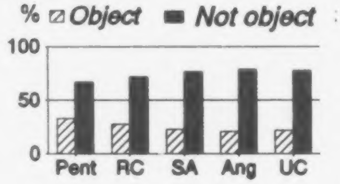
It is best for children to go to separate schools according to their religion. (Q16)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 18% |
| *Disagree* | 82% |



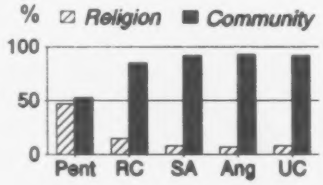
If a child of yours had to attend a school run by a different denomination, would you say you would strongly object, mildly object, or not object at all? (Q24)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Strongly object* | 8% |
| *Mildly object* | 17% |
| *Not object at all* | 75% |



Some times children travel by bus to another community to attend a school of their own religion. Other times children stay in their local community to attend school even if it is not of their own religion. Which do you think is more important? (Q25)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Own religion* | 12% |
| *Own community* | 88% |



The other two questions in this group were more specific. Asked if they would object to having their own child attend a school run by a different denomination, 75 percent of all respondents and at least two-thirds of each denominational group said they "would not object at all." Faced with a choice of sending children by bus to a school of their own religion in another community, or having them attend a local school of a different religion, 88 percent of respondents opted for the latter choice. (This position was taken by 87 percent in response to the same question in the 1986 CBC survey.) The figure was 93 percent for respondents of the Integrated denominations, 85 percent for Roman Catholics, and 57 percent for Pentecostals. Taken as a group, results from these four questions reveal a public for whom only a very small minority considers the mixing of religions to be seriously objectionable.

### Separation of schools by denomination

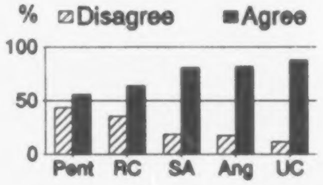
Continuing the theme of Table 8, Table 9 contains a set of questions seeking opinions on the primary structural feature of the denominational system, the operation of separate systems by the recognized denominations. The first two questions are similar, apart from the response format. To the first, 79 percent agreed that "there should be a single school system for everyone, regardless of their religion." An equivalent question found that 85 percent believe "that all children should attend the same schools," rather than "attend schools of their own religion" as most now do. These large majorities favouring elimination of separate schools were mirrored among respondents of all denominations, although Pentecostals were more closely divided, with 56 and 53 percent, respectively, taking the majority positions on the two questions. Question 23 probed for views on possible negative social consequences of separate denominational schools. Three-fourths of all respondents agreed that "denominational schools create divisions between people within the same community." This view was shared by a majority of all religions in the sample. (The same question asked in the 1986 CBC survey elicited a substantially different response: only a minority of 44 percent agreed.) Another aspects of the system is the exclusive preserve given to the recognized denominations. Question 17 asked if this is "unfair to families who are not members of one of the churches which run schools." Overall, 63 percent agreed. (In the 1986 survey, 62 percent agreed with a similar statement.) This opinion was held by only 27 percent of Pentecostals, however. In response to another question regarding rights of non-recognized religious categories, 82 percent of respondents stated that persons who are not members of the recognized denominations should be permitted to run for election for a school board of their choice.

TABLE 9

Attitudes toward separation of schools by denomination

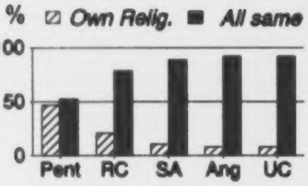
There should be a single school system for everyone, regardless of their religion. (Q14)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 79% |
| *Disagree* | 21% |



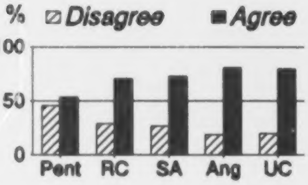
By and large children now attend schools of their own religion. However, some people believe that all children should attend the same schools. Which do you think is best? (Q28)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Own religion only* | 15% |
| *All same schools* | 85% |



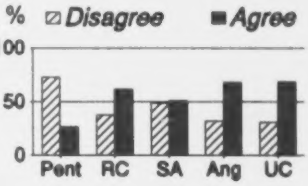
Denominational schools create divisions between people within the same community. (Q23)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 75% |
| *Disagree* | 25% |



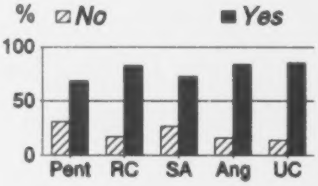
The denominational system is unfair to families who are not members of one of the churches which run schools. (Q17)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 63% |
| *Disagree* | 37% |



Currently some Newfoundlanders are not members of a denomination which run schools. Do you think these people should be allowed to run for election to a school board of their choice? (Q26)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 82% |
| *Disagree* | 18% |



A possible remedy for "discriminatory" aspects of the exclusive denominational system, one advocated by the Human Rights Association, would be to add a separate stream of non-denominational schools to the present system. This idea was put to respondents early in the survey, just after the general question preference for denominational versus non-denominational systems.

> *Some people have suggested that Newfoundland could keep the present system, but also have some public schools that are not under church control for people who prefer this. Would you say you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with this idea?*

This proposal received agreement from 62 percent of all respondents, including 71 percent of those who wanted to keep the present system and 54 percent of those preferring a non-denominational system. From the answers reported in Table 9, however, it appears that the idea of adding non-denominational schools would be seen by the majority of the public as a "second-best" alternative to simply unifying the present system.

The overall picture presented by Table 9 is inescapable. By very large majorities, the survey respondents were critical of the implications of separate church-associated school systems, and approved of their replacement by a single unified system. Only Pentecostal respondents were consistently less inclined than others to share in this consensus.

## Church involvement in school boards

The final set of questions, reported in Table 10, concern the role of the churches in the operation of school boards. In the first of these, 75 percent of respondents agreed that "a good thing about the Newfoundland school system is that church rights are preserved." In the survey, there was no explanation of what comprises "church rights," but legally these include the exclusive right, on behalf of the recognized religious "classes," to operate the public schools of the province through denominational boards. To the related proposition that "churches should no longer be involved in school boards," 60 percent *disagreed*, including a majority of all denominations. This pattern was consistent with answers to a question asked earlier, just after the general question on preference for a denominational or non-denominational system:

> *If Newfoundland were to change to a single system, several alternatives have been suggested. Of the two following alternatives, which one do you prefer, a single system with no church involvement or a single system with all churches involved?*

The second alternative, continued church involvement even within a unified system, was endorsed by 68 percent of all respondents.

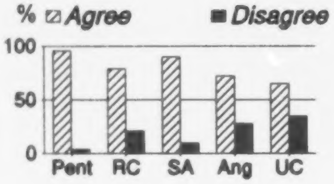
Two further questions, shown in Table 10, were asked about the terms of such involvement. Virtually all respondents (89 percent) agreed that "if schools want to operate schools, they should help pay the cost." A similar proportion (87 percent) stated that "all denominations in an area should co-operate to establish jointly operated school boards" rather than continue to operate separate boards. This majority included 83 percent of Roman Catholics and 92 percent of those in the Integrated denominations. A lesser practical reform, the operation of a single bus system serving all denominations, was supported by 85 percent.

The overall pattern of opinion in Table 10 may be summarized as follows: A majority of the public reject the total elimination of the churches from school administration, but even larger majorities believe that this involvement should take place within a cooperative framework of joint or unified boards, operating common services.

### TABLE 10
Attitudes toward church involvement in school boards

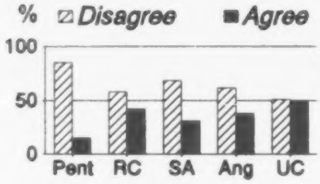
A good thing about the Newfoundland school system is that church rights are preserved. (Q15)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 75% |
| *Disagree* | 25% |



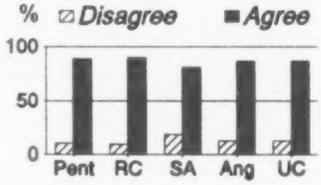
Churches should no longer be involved in school boards. (Q12)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 40% |
| *Disagree* | 60% |



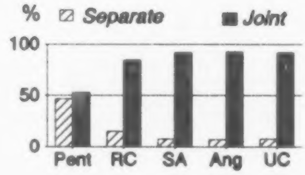
If churches want to operate schools they should help pay the cost. (Q21)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 89% |
| *Disagree* | 11% |



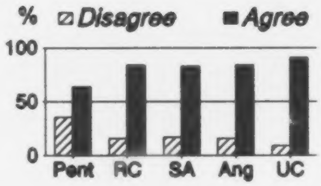
At present, denominations operate their own school boards. However, it has been suggested that all denominations in an area co-operate to establish jointly operated school boards. Which do you think is best, separate boards or joint boards? (Q29)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Separate boards* | 13% |
| *Joint boards* | 87% |



There should be a single school bus system serving all denominations in each area. (Q22)

| | |
|---|---|
| *Agree* | 85% |
| *Disagree* | 15% |



**Summary: A balance sheet of features to be retained or reformed**

To close this review of survey evidence on specific dimensions of denominational system, we may now summarize those features which a majority of respondents supported, and those which they would like to see changed or eliminated. This will provide a sort of "balance sheet" of public opinion to supplement the finding in Section 3 that 60 percent would simply prefer a "non-denominational" system if given the choice.

**Features the majority would like to see *retained***

| | |
|---|---|
| Teaching religion in school | 77% |
| Teachers expected to exemplify "religious values and standards" | 88% |
| "Church rights" preserved | 75% |
| Churches "involved" in school boards | 60% |

***Changes* endorsed by a majority**

| | |
|---|---|
| Teaching religion in multi-denominational setting | 70-85% |
| Teaching religion by teacher of another denomination | 74% |
| No denominational restriction on hiring teachers | 81% |
| Allow board members of non-recognized denominations | 82% |
| Single school bus system in each area | 85% |
| Single, joint school boards in each area | 87% |
| Single school system for all children | 79% |
| All children attend the same schools | 85% |

Some of the items under the "changes" already represent current practice in some parts of the system, such as teaching religion in a non-doctrinaire manner and giving little if any attention to the religion of teachers in hiring decisions. But, by and large, the changes supported by 80 percent or more of the respondents would represent a radical departure from the present system of separate denominational boards and schools. Yet the consistency with which respondents replied to multiple questions on these matters leaves little doubt as to their intent.

What continuing role does this leave the churches? The endorsement of "church rights" may be interpreted as a largely symbolic affirmation of respect, since those specific legal rights are not widely known but comprise in large part the operation of separate boards and schools--which the great majority specifically reject. On a more tangible level, a large majority of the public clearly want some form of religious education to continue, but not necessarily in an exclusively denominational setting. The planning and supervision of such religious teaching is an obvious area for the church "involvement" endorsed by a majority. Beyond this, there is no evidence that the majority would object to an established role for church representatives on the joint or non-denominational boards which are clearly the preferred administrative arrangement. In short, our "balance sheet" suggests that by a majority approaching consensus, the Newfoundland public favours a unified non-sectarian system, but not one that is wholly secular.

## V. Conclusion:
## Interpretation of questions measuring public opinion on denominational education

We observed at the beginning of Section 3 that about 60 percent of the survey sample stated that they would prefer to switch to a "non-denominational system," while the remaining 40 percent endorsed the status quo. Nonetheless, in Section 4 we observed that some features of the present system, such as teaching religion in school, are supported by a majority of all respondents. On the other hand, several fundamental elements of the system are rejected by proportions far greater than the 60 percent who simply opted for a "non-denominational" system. I shall conclude this report by looking at the relationship between answers to the general system preference question and the questions on specific features, to provide a better basis for weighing the responses to Question 6 and similar general questions on denominational education.

Table 11 contains responses to the twenty specific questions from Tables 6 to 10 broken down between respondents who, in answer to Question 6, said they preferred to keep the denominational system and those who would change to a non-denominational system. In all cases, percentages are reported only for the response choice which would be *contrary* to the denominational framework in structure, practice or values. For example, since teaching religion in school is a central feature of denominational education, a "disagree" response to Question 10 is deemed "contrary." Consistent with this interpretation, only 10 percent of respondents who preferred to keep the denominational system disagreed with Question 10, compared with 32 percent of those who said they preferred a non-denominational system.

In scanning the figures in Table 11, we are less concerned with the differences between the two columns (which in all cases are in the predicted direction) than in the apparently high level of inconsistency in the "keep denominational system" column. In fact, among the 40 percent of respondents who said in answer to Question 6 that they preferred to "keep the denominational system," only six of the questions in Table 11 attracted a majority for the response which favoured that system:

| | |
|---|---|
| • Teaching religion in school gives better education | 90% agree |
| • Teachers should show religious values and standards | 96% agree |
| • Differences among churches justify separate schools | 57% agree |
| • The denominational system is unfair to some families | 54% disagree |
| • It is good that Newfoundland system preserves church rights | 92% agree |
| • Churches should no longer be involved in school boards | 76% disagree |

On all of the other fourteen questions, a majority of those favouring the denominational system in general expressed a "non-denominational" preference to specific features, and thus shared in the majority with their non-denominational counterparts on Question 6. It is sufficient to cite some of the more striking of these results.

| | |
|---|---|
| • There should be a single public system | 64% agree |
| • Children should go to separate schools by religion | 66% disagree |
| • All children should attend the same schools | 67% agree |
| • Denominations should establish joint school boards | 72% agree |

Thus, on the average, *two-thirds of respondents who initially stated that they supported retention of denominational education later in the survey repeatedly indicated that they rejected its central structural feature*, the division of schools and boards into separate denominational "pillars." How are we to interpret this?

TABLE 11

Relationship of attitudes toward specific aspects of denominational education to preferred system as a whole (*percentages*)

| | | | System preferred (Q.6) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Questions on specific aspects of denominational education** | **Response** | *Keep denom.* | *Non-denom.* |
| Q.10 | Teaching religion in school gives a better overall education. | *Disagree* | 10 | 32 |
| Q.13 | Children should be taught in school on the beliefs only of their own religion. | *Disagree* | 60 | 77 |
| Q.18 | Children should be taught in school about beliefs and practices of all religions. | *Agree* | 82 | 88 |
| Q.19 | Teachers have a responsibility to show a commitment to religious values and standards. | *Disagree* | 4 | 17 |
| Q.27 | If a child of yours were to be taught religion by a qualified teacher of another denomination, would you say you would strongly object, mildly object, or not object at all? | *Not object* | 62 | 80 |
| Q.11 | School boards should have the right to refuse to hire teachers if they are not of the board's religion. | *Disagree* | 67 | 90 |
| Q.20 | The differences among the churches justify having separate denominational schools. | *Disagree* | 43 | 80 |
| Q.16 | It is best for children to go to separate schools according to their religion. | *Disagree* | 66 | 93 |
| Q.24 | If a child of yours had to attend a school run by a different denomination, would you say you would strongly object, mildly object, or not object at all? | *Not object* | 64 | 80 |
| Q.25 | Some times children travel by bus to another community to attend a school of their own religion. Other times children stay in their local community to attend school even if it is not of their own religion. Which do you think is more important? | *Own community* | 75 | 96 |
| Q.14 | There should be a single school system for everyone, regardless of their religion. | *Agree* | 64 | 88 |
| Q.28 | By and large children now attend schools of their own religion. However, some people believe that all children should attend the same schools. Which do you think is best? | *All same* | 67 | 96 |
| Q.23 | Denominational schools create divisions between people within the same community. | *Agree* | 66 | 83 |
| Q.17 | The denominational system is unfair to families who are not members of one of the churches which run schools. | *Agree* | 46 | 73 |
| Q.26 | Currently some Newfoundlanders are not members of a denomination which run schools. Do you think these people should be allowed to run for election to a school board of their choice? | *Yes* | 70 | 90 |

TABLE 11 *(continued)*

| | Questions on specific aspects of denominational education | Response | System preferred (Q.6) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | *Keep denom.* | *Non-denom.* |
| Q.15 | A good thing about the Newfoundland school system is that church rights are preserved. | *Disagree* | 8 | 38 |
| Q.12 | Churches should no longer be involved in school boards. | *Agree* | 24 | 51 |
| Q.21 | If churches want to operate schools they should help pay the cost. | *Agree* | 86 | 91 |
| Q.29 | At present, denominations operate their own school boards. However, it has been suggested that all denominations in an area co-operate to establish jointly operated school boards. Which do you think is best, separate boards or joint boards? | *Joint* | 72 | 96 |
| Q.22 | There should be a single school bus system serving all denominations in each area. | *Agree* | 76 | 90 |

The response reported for each question is that which tends toward *rejection* of a specific feature of the denominational system. Thus, using Q.16 as an example, 66 percent of those who in Q.6 favoured the present denominational system also *disagreed* that "It is best for children to go to separate schools according to their religion," compared with 93 percent of those who favoured change to a single public system. ("Don't know" and refused responses excluded.)

As I indicated in commenting on the apparent malleability of response patterns to differently worded questions referring to the system as a whole, I believe that the "Newfoundland denominational system" is what might be termed a "soft" object for opinions, in contrast to the more specific elements referred to in later questions. It appears that many of the respondents who initially stated that they support this system were only vaguely aware of it's implications. They may well have been registering non-specific support for "the Newfoundland school system," or "our schools." As we saw in Section 2, general approval for local schools is high. This interpretation is consistent with responses in several of the St. John's area surveys cited in Table 4 to an open-ended question asking for the *reason* for the general preference for a denominational or non-denominational system. In all of these, the most frequent answers among those favouring denominational schools were variations on the theme "it's our traditional system" or "the system I grew up with." Thus, there is a natural *sentimental* attachment to a system which has been central to the fabric of Newfoundland society. But it appears that for about two-thirds of the 40 percent who express this general endorsement, it is an attachment in name only. It does not carry over to approval of the specific structures and regulations of the system, but only to the continuation of some degree of religious instruction and ambience in the schools, and some role for the churches in their governance.

This interpretation is consistent with the previously observed difference in response patterns to survey questions, such as those used by Dr. Warren, which only seek agreement or disagreement with "the Newfoundland denominational system of education," and questions such as the one in the RCE survey which place a more fully described alternative before the respondent. I believe that it is clear from the overall pattern of responses presented in this report that "agreeing" with the system in general is a way for many respondents to express general support for education, but does not exclude rejection of many or most of the specific elements of the system.

## Appendix A

## THE SURVEY METHODOLOGY

### Sample design

The survey on which this report is based consisted of 1,001 interviews conducted by telephone in September, 1991, by Research Associates of St. John's. The sample was designed by Research Associates in consultation with the research staff of the Royal Commission. The sample was intended to represent all adults in Newfoundland and Labrador (aged 18 and over) living in non-institutional households. Individuals were reached by random selection of residential telephones, with a rotating system for randomly selecting eligible individuals within the household.

The sampling frame consisted of the Newfoundland telephone system. Newfoundland Telephone estimates that more than 95 percent of all residences in the province are connected with a telephone. Selection of individual residences was accomplished in two stages. In the first stage, 172 telephone exchanges (NNX areas) were selected randomly from the total of 211 exchanges in the system. The effect of this primary stage of selection was to assure that persons living throughout the province had an equal chance of being included in the total sample. A total of 300 individual communities are represented in the completed survey. In the second stage, a number of individual telephone numbers proportional to the number of residential numbers in the system were randomly generated to be dialled by interviewers.

Table A1. Sample selection and completion

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Intended sample size: | | 1,000 |
| 2. | Total numbers dialled: | | 5,585 |
| | Bad numbers | 2,063 | |
| | No answer after 3 tries | 1,217 | |
| | Non-residential numbers | 283 | |
| | No eligible respondents | 36 | |
| 3. | Net valid residential numbers reached: | | 1,986 |
| | Interviews not completed: | | |
| | Refused | 732 | |
| | Not at home, not available for duration of survey | 253 | |
| 4. | Total interviews completed: | | 1,001 |
| | Completion rate: | | 50.4% |

### Administration and completion of interviews

Once interviewers reached a residential household they identified the appropriate respondent by reference to a selection matrix which alternated between women and men and between young and old members. At least five attempts were then made to complete the interview with the selected individual. If a completion did not result after five attempts or the selected respondent was not available during the duration of the survey, the household was replaced by another randomly selected number within the same NNX area to complete the appropriate number of interviews for the area. Calls were concentrated in the early evening hours and weekends to maximize chances of reaching intended respondents. Table A1 summarizes these selection and completion procedures.

**Accuracy of the sample**

The "statistical accuracy" or "statistical margin of error" of a random sample of 1,001 is ±3.2% 19 times out of 20. That is, if 50% of the sample gives a particular answer to a question, we can be safe in assuming that the true population figure falls in the range 47-53%, with 1 chance in 20 that the sample will depart further from the population. Most of the time, sample will be even closer to the population.

To further assess the accuracy of the sample, we may compare it with known characteristics of the population derived from the Census. This is done in Table A2 below. On the whole, the sample closely matches the Census figures. All religious categories fall within one or two percent. University graduates are over-represented in the sample, and persons with less than high school under-represented. The youngest and oldest age groups are under-represented, and middle age groups over-represented. When the sample was adjusted (weighted) to compensate for these discrepancies, percentages for Question 6 (preference for denominational versus non-denominational school system) differed by only 0.1 percent from those in the unadjusted sample. Therefore, the original, unadjusted sample has been used throughout this report.

TABLE A2. Comparison of survey with census parameters (percentages)

| | | Sample | Census[1] |
|---|---|---|---|
| SEX | Male | 46.1 | 49.5 |
| | Female | 53.9 | 50.5 |
| AGE | 18-24 | 11.8 | 19.1 |
| | 25-34 | 27.2 | 24.8 |
| | 35-44 | 29.4 | 20.0 |
| | 45-54 | 14.3 | 12.5 |
| | 55-64 | 8.8 | 10.6 |
| | 65-older | 8.5 | 13.0 |
| RELIGION | Roman Catholic | 35.3 | 36.2 |
| | Anglican | 27.7 | 27.2 |
| | United Church | 19.3 | 18.6 |
| | Salvation Army | 9.0 | 8.0 |
| | Pentecostal | 5.8 | 6.6 |
| | Other religion | 2.0 | 2.3 |
| | None | 0.9 | 1.0 |
| EDUCATION[2] | Less than grade 9 | 16.2 | 22.9 |
| | High school | 48.8 | 42.3 |
| | Some post-secondary | 22.1 | 28.1 |
| | University degree | 13.0 | 6.6 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| POPULATION | Less than 1000 | 37.1 | 41.1 |
| | 1,000-2,499 | 14.6 | 7.7 |
| | 2,500-4,999 | 12.9 | 9.1 |
| | 5,000-25,000 | 14.2 | 21.3 |
| | St. John's/Mount Pearl | 21.7 | 20.7 |

[1] 1986 Census, except religion: 1981 Census.

[2] 1986 education figures were adjusted to estimated 1991 levels by extrapolation from 1971-1986 trends.

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## Appendix B

## SURVEY CODEBOOK

This codebook contains all questions as included in the survey questionnaire, as well as several variables created within the SPSS[a] file used for analysis of the data. For each question or variable, the following information is reported:

- Question number from original questionnaire.
- Wording of the question and response choices read to respondents (**bold-face print**), as well as instructions to interviewers [*italic*].
- SPSS variable name assigned to the item (at right margin).
- Frequencies and percentages for each response category. Percentages are based on the total of *valid* responses. Categories treated as invalid or "missing" are designated by "m" in the percentage column.

Respondent number (1-1001) RESP

1. **Do you have children now in school?** Q1

**[If asked: That is children in kindergarten to grade 12, not children at university or trade school].**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 469 | 46.9% | 1 | Yes |
| 532 | 53.1 | 2 | No |

2. **Do you have any children who will be in school in the future?** Q2

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 251 | 25.1% | 1 | Yes |
| 750 | 75.0 | 2 | No |

Composite variable combining responses to Q1 and Q2. CHILDREN

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 469 | 46.9% | 1 | Children now in school |
| 93 | 9.3 | 2 | Pre-school children only |
| 439 | 43.9 | 3 | No children in school or pre-school |

3. **In general, how interested would you say you are in education? Would you say you are:** Q3

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 780 | 78.5% | 1 | **very interested** |
| 160 | 16.1 | 2 | **somewhat interested** |
| 54 | 5.4 | 3 | **not very interested** |
| 7 | m | 9 | DK/refused |

4A. **During the past year, other than a parent-teacher interview, have you attended any meeting concerned with schools, such as the Home and School Association or School Board?** Q4A

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 168 | 16.8% | 1 | Yes |
| 832 | 83.2 | 2 | No |
| 1 | m | 9 | DK/Refused |

**4B. What kind of meeting?** Q4B

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 54 | 5.4% | 1 | PTA |
| 19 | 1.9 | 2 | Home & School Association |
| 21 | 2.1 | 3 | School Board |
| 74 | 7.4 | 4 | Other |
| 833 | 83.2 | 9 | Did not attend meeting |

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**5. Students are often given the grades A,B,C,D or Fail to show the quality of their work. If the schools in your community were graded in the same way, what grade would you give them - A, B, C, D, or Fail?** Q5

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 302 | 35.4% | 1 | A |
| 398 | 46.7 | 2 | B |
| 118 | 13.8 | 3 | C |
| 17 | 2.0 | 4 | D |
| 17 | 2.0 | 5 | Fail |
| 149 | m | 9 | Don't know |

---

**As you know, Newfoundland has an education system organized along denominational lines. The following questions mainly concern your views about this system.**

[Rotate alternate wording]

**6A. Some people feel that Newfoundland should switch from its present denominational school system to one that is non-denominational. Others feel that Newfoundland should keep the denominational system. Which system do you prefer?** Q6

**6B. Some people feel that Newfoundland should keep the present denominational school system. Others feel that Newfoundland should switch from the present system to one that is non-denominational. Which system do you prefer?**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 362 | 39.6% | 1 | Keep denominational system |
| 552 | 60.4 | 2 | Switch to non-denominational system |
| 87 | m | 3 | No opinion |

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Wording used for Question 6. Q6AB

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 503 | 50.2% | 6A |
| 498 | 49.8 | 6B |

7. **How important is this issue to you? Is it:** Q7

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 390 | 40.3% | 1 | **very important** |
| 403 | 41.7 | 2 | **somewhat important** |
| 174 | 18.0 | 3 | **not very important** |
| 34 | m | 8 | no opinion |

8. **Some people have suggested that Newfoundland could keep the present system, but also have some public schools that are not under church control for people who prefer this. Would you say you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with this idea?** Q8

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 87 | 9.1% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 506 | 53.1 | 2 | Agree |
| 265 | 27.8 | 3 | Disagree |
| 95 | 10.0 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 48 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

9. **If Newfoundland were to change to a single system, several alternatives have been suggested. Of the two following alternatives, which one do you prefer...?** Q9

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 315 | 32.2% | 1 | **A single system with no church involvement** |
| | | OR | |
| 663 | 67.8 | 2 | **A single system with all churches involved** |
| 5 | m | 7 | Neither [Probe: **If you had to choose, which would you prefer?**] |
| 16 | m | 8 | No opinion |
| 5 | m | 9 | Refused |

**I am now going to read some statements to you. These are statements of opinions about education and schools in Newfoundland. After each one, I would like you to tell me whether you, personally, strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with the statement.**

10. **Teaching religion in school gives a better overall education** Q10

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 188 | 19.1% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 569 | 57.8 | 2 | Agree |
| 199 | 20.2 | 3 | Disagree |
| 28 | 2.8 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 17 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

11. **School boards should have the right to refuse to hire teachers if they are not of the board's religion.** Q11

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 26 | 2.7% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 161 | 16.5 | 2 | Agree |
| 445 | 45.5 | 3 | Disagree |
| 345 | 35.3 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 24 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

12. **Churches should no longer be involved in school boards.** Q12

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 82 | 8.6% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 302 | 31.8 | 2 | Agree |
| 470 | 49.5 | 3 | Disagree |
| 95 | 10.0 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 52 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

13. **Children should be taught in school on the beliefs only of their own religion.** Q13

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 64 | 6.8% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 221 | 23.3 | 2 | Agree |
| 497 | 52.4 | 3 | Disagree |
| 166 | 17.5 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 53 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

14. **There should be a single school system for everyone, regardless of their religion.** Q14

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 238 | 24.3% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 532 | 54.4 | 2 | Agree |
| 171 | 17.5 | 3 | Disagree |
| 37 | 3.8 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 23 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

Q15

15. **A good thing about the Newfoundland school system is that church rights are preserved.**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 115 | 12.3% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 588 | 62.8 | 2 | Agree |
| 190 | 20.3 | 3 | Disagree |
| 44 | 4.7 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 64 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

**16. It is best for children to go to separate schools according to their religion.** Q16

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 28 | 2.9% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 148 | 15.1 | 2 | Agree |
| 568 | 58.1 | 3 | Disagree |
| 234 | 23.9 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 23 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

---

**17. The denominational system is unfair to families who are not members of one of the churches which run schools.** Q17

**[Probe: Anglican, Catholic, United Church, Salvation Army and Pentecostal.]**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 111 | 12.3% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 456 | 50.4 | 2 | Agree |
| 297 | 32.9 | 3 | Disagree |
| 40 | 4.4 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 97 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

---

**18. Children should be taught in school about beliefs and practices of all religions.** Q18

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 190 | 19.4% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 643 | 65.8 | 2 | Agree |
| 112 | 11.5 | 3 | Disagree |
| 32 | 3.3 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 24 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

---

**19. Teachers have a responsibility to show a commitment to religious values and standards.** Q19

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 171 | 17.7% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 680 | 70.4 | 2 | Agree |
| 100 | 10.4 | 3 | Disagree |
| 15 | 1.6 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 35 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

---

**20. The differences among the churches justify having separate denominational schools.** Q20

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 34 | 3.7% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 283 | 30.7 | 2 | Agree |
| 489 | 53.0 | 3 | Disagree |
| 116 | 12.6 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 79 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

21. **If churches want to operate schools they should help pay the cost.** Q21

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 257 | 26.5% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 598 | 61.7 | 2 | Agree |
| 100 | 10.3 | 3 | Disagree |
| 14 | 1.4 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 32 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

---

22. **There should be a single school bus system serving all denominations in each area.** Q22

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 261 | 26.5% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 573 | 58.2 | 2 | Agree |
| 137 | 13.9 | 3 | Disagree |
| 14 | 1.4 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 16 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

---

23. **Denominational schools create divisions between people within the same community.** Q23

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 163 | 17.1% | 1 | Strongly agree |
| 556 | 58.3 | 2 | Agree |
| 196 | 20.6 | 3 | Disagree |
| 38 | 4.0 | 4 | Strongly disagree |
| 48 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

---

24. **If a child of yours had to attend a school run by a different denomination, would you say you would strongly object, mildly object, or not object at all?** Q24

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 79 | 8.1% | 1 | Strongly object |
| 168 | 17.2 | 2 | Mildly object |
| 731 | 74.7 | 3 | Not object at all |
| 23 | m | 8 | No opinion |

---

25. **Some times children travel by bus to another community to attend a school of their own religion. Other times children stay in their local community to attend school even if it is not of their own religion. Which do you think is more important?** Q25

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 120 | 12.4% | 1 | Attend a school of their own denomination |
| 848 | 87.6 | 2 | Attend a school in their own community |
| 33 | m | 8 | No opinion |

26. **Currently some Newfoundlanders are not members of a denomination which run schools. Do you think these people should be allowed to run for election to a school board of their choice?** Q26

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 775 | 82.4% | 1 | Yes |
| 166 | 17.6 | 2 | No |
| 57 | m | 8 | Don't know/no opinion |
| 3 | m | 9 | Refused |

27. **If a child of yours were to be taught religion by a qualified teacher of another denomination, would you say you would strongly object, mildly object, or not object at all?** Q27

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 101 | 10.4% | 1 | Strongly object |
| 156 | 16.0 | 2 | Mildly object |
| 717 | 73.6 | 3 | Not object at all |
| 26 | m | 8 | No opinion |
| 1 | m | 9 | Refused |

28. **By and large children now attend schools of their own religion. However, some people believe that all children should attend the same schools. Which do you think is best?** Q28

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 142 | 14.9% | 1 | Children attend separate schools |
| 808 | 85.1 | 2 | Children attend the same schools |
| 50 | m | 8 | No opinion |
| 1 | m | 9 | Refused |

29. **At present, denominations operate their own school boards. However, it has been suggested that all denominations in an area co-operate to establish jointly operated school boards. Which do you think is best, separate boards or joint boards?** Q29

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 128 | 13.3% | 1 | Separate boards |
| 834 | 86.7 | 2 | Joint boards |
| 37 | m | 8 | No opinion |
| 2 | m | 9 | Refused |

**The next question concerns the matter of how much say or input parents should have in the education of their children.**

**For each of the following areas, do you think parents should have more say, less say or about the same say as now?**

30. **The appointment of teachers.** Q30

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 351 | 36.6% | 1 | More say |
| 69 | 7.2 | 2 | Less say |
| 540 | 56.3 | 3 | About the same |
| 40 | m | 8 | Don't know |
| 1 | m | 9 | Refused |

---

31. **School planning, such as opening and closing schools.** Q31

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 406 | 41.8% | 1 | More say |
| 74 | 7.6 | 2 | Less say |
| 491 | 50.6 | 3 | About the same |
| 29 | m | 8 | Don't know |
| 1 | m | 9 | Refused |

---

32. **Budget decisions.** Q32

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 467 | 49.4% | 1 | More say |
| 73 | 7.7 | 2 | Less say |
| 406 | 42.9 | 3 | About the same |
| 52 | m | 8 | Don't know |
| 3 | m | 9 | Refused |

---

33. **What subjects are offered.** Q33

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 518 | 54.4 | 1 | More say |
| 58 | 6.1 | 2 | Less say |
| 377 | 39.6 | 3 | About the same |
| 44 | m | 8 | Don't know |
| 4 | m | 9 | Refused |

---

34. **Appointment of principals.** Q34

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 310 | 33.0% | 1 | More say |
| 99 | 10.5 | 2 | Less say |
| 531 | 56.5 | 3 | About the same |
| 59 | m | 8 | Don't know |
| 2 | m | 9 | Refused |

---

**35. What is the highest level of education you have attained?** Q35

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 161 | 16.2% | 1 | Elementary school, up to grade 8 |
| 207 | 20.8 | 2 | Some high school |
| 278 | 28.0 | 3 | Completed high school |
| 134 | 13.5 | 4 | Vocational or technical school |
| 85 | 8.6 | 5 | Some university |
| 129 | 13.0 | 6 | University graduate |
| 7 | m | 9 | Refused |

**36. What is your age?** Q36

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 997 | 99.6% | 18-88 | Exact age in years |
| 1 | 0.1 | 2 | 25-34 category only reported |
| 1 | 0.1 | 3 | 35-44 category only reported |
| 1 | 0.1 | 4 | 45-54 category only reported |
| 1 | 0.1 | 99 | Refused |

Age (Q36) recoded in categories. AGER

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 118 | 11.8% | 1 | 18-25 |
| 272 | 27.2 | 2 | 25-34 |
| 294 | 29.4 | 3 | 35-44 |
| 143 | 14.3 | 4 | 45-54 |
| 88 | 8.8 | 5 | 55-64 |
| 85 | 8.5 | 6 | 65-88 |
| 1 | m | 9 | Refused |

**37. Would you be willing to serve if nominated for election to school board or a local school council?** Q37

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 426 | 44.2% | 1 | Yes |
| 538 | 55.8 | 2 | No |
| 36 | m | 8 | No opinion |
| 1 | m | 9 | Refused |

**38. What is your religion?** Q38

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 350 | 35.3% | 1 | Roman Catholic |
| 273 | 27.7 | 2 | Anglican (includes Church of England) |
| 190 | 19.3 | 3 | United Church (includes Methodist) |
| 89 | 9.0 | 4 | Salvation Army |
| 57 | 5.8 | 5 | Pentecostal |
| 25 | 2.0 | 6 | Other denominations and religions |
| 7 | 0.9 | 7 | None |
| 10 | m | 9 | Refused |

39. **About how often do you attend church or a place of worship?** Q39

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 344 | 34.7% | 1 | **Nearly every week or more often** |
| 196 | 19.8 | 2 | **Once or twice a month** |
| 191 | 19.3 | 3 | **Several times a year** |
| 187 | 18.9 | 4 | **Once or twice a year** |
| 72 | 7.3 | 5 | **Never** |
| 11 | m | 9 | Don't know/refused |

40. **Did you happen to go to church in the last week?** Q40

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 341 | 34.2% | 1 | Yes |
| 656 | 65.8 | 2 | No |
| 4 | m | 9 | Refused |

41. **What is the name of the community where you live?** Q41

[Separate code list.]

Population of community (1986 Census) POP

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 367 | 36.7% | 1 | Less than 1,000 |
| 146 | 14.6 | 2 | 1,000 to 2,499 |
| 129 | 12.9 | 3 | 2,500 to 4,999 |
| 142 | 14.2 | 4 | 5,000 to 25,000 |
| 217 | 21.7 | 6 | St. John's/Mount Pearl |

Sex [perceived by interviewer] SEX

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 461 | 46.1% | 1 | Male |
| 540 | 53.9 | 2 | Female |

Telephone exchange (NNX) NNX

## Chapter 22

# PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATIONAL CHANGE IN NEWFOUNDLAND, 1991

Jeffrey Bulcock

### Focus

The Public Opinion survey on education conducted by the Royal Commission on Education in September, 1991, was designed primarily to obtain accurate information on public attitudes toward denominational schooling. The telephone poll of 1001 randomly selected respondents was accurate within 3 percentage points 19 times out of 20.

Since detailed descriptive data are available from other sources, this paper will focus on the question: What factors seem to account for some people wishing to change the denominational system of provincial education, while others wish to keep the system in place relatively unchanged? In other words, what is the conditional probability of support for changing the existing governing structure of Newfoundland education?

### Model

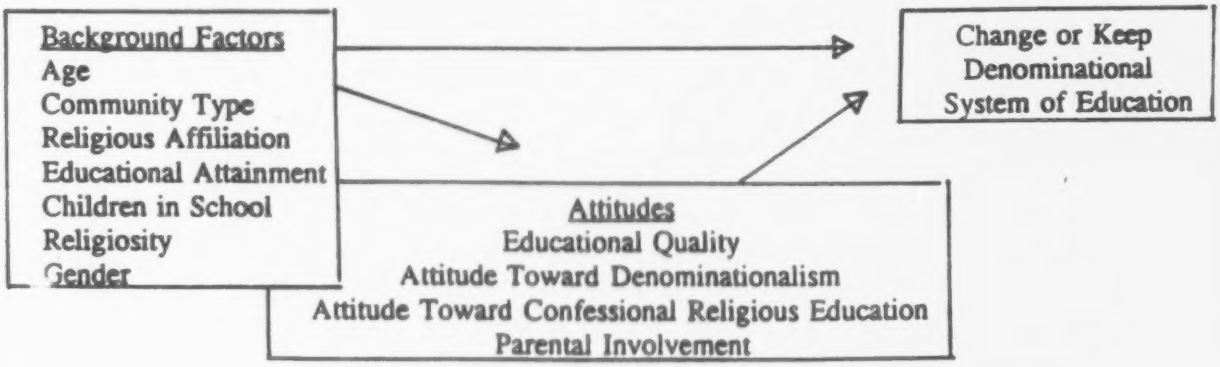
The purpose of a model is to explain. In the public opinion interview schedule there were a number of questions designed to identify respondent attributes such as age, gender, religious affiliation, educational attainment, and whether the respondent had children in school now or would have in the future. Additional questions were designed to identify respondent attitudes toward the role of religion in education, toward denominational schooling and toward parental involvement in schooling. Some miscellaneous questions on whether the respondent lived in a rural or urban community and whether the respondent had a high regard for the quality of Newfoundland schooling or not were also included. The basic model, then, may be conceived as an attempt to explain why some people would prefer to change to a non-denominational system of education on the basis of two general factors -- personal attributes and attitudes. These could be disaggregated into two sets of variables. Under personal attributes, one would consider six variables: age, gender, community of residence, religious affiliation, religiosity, educational attainment and whether the respondent had children in school, or would have in the future, or not. Under attitudes, one could include attitude toward confessional religious education, attitude toward denominationalism, perception of schooling quality, and attitude toward parental involvement in educational decision making. The attribute variables are usually considered logically prior to attitude variables. For example, age or gender may influence attitudes but not the other way round. The basic model is depicted in Figure 1.

### Arguments:

#### Background Factors

Age. It is believed that aging is genetically programmed; hence, is not remedial through physical intervention. It is a process that accelerates in the post reproductive period of human life and which is imperfectly understood. A common assumption which may not be valid is that other things equal the elderly and near elderly tend to be more conservative or traditional in their outlook than younger and middle-aged adults. This hypothesis with respect to the governance of education can be tested using the public opinion poll data.

Figure 1. Personal Attribute Model of Educational System Change


Background Factors
Age
Community Type
Religious Affiliation
Educational Attainment
Children in School
Religiosity
Gender
Change or Keep Denominational System of Education
Attitudes
Educational Quality
Attitude Toward Denominationalism
Attitude Toward Confessional Religious Education
Parental Involvement

Community. Unlike every other Province, Newfoundland is predominantly rural. While the size of the urban population in Canada had overtaken that of the rural population by 1931, the intersection has still to occur in Newfoundland. While this might be interpreted to mean that rural life is still viable in Newfoundland, such is not necessarily the case. The changing distribution of population between rural and urban areas is accompanied by declining population growth in absolute terms -- a phenomenon which may be unprecedented in recent world history. Such changes, however, can be viewed both as a cause of socioeconomic change and as an effect. This is because urbanization or urban/rural effects are symptoms or proxies for more fundamental causal factors. What these community differences stand for, whether they are independent agents in the social change process or proxies for something else, are questions that can be addressed with reference to keeping or changing the denominational structure of education. In other words, is it the fact that some people live in rural communities or not that affect educational attitudes and achievements, or is it something else that rural/urban residence stands for?

Religious Affiliation. It may not be widely known that the Latin root of the word "religion" is "religare" meaning to bind, and that, traditionally, religion referred to the patterns of human behaviour -- attitudes, values and beliefs -- that in the most fundamental sense bound people together to form communities. Ironically, the past century has been an age of secularization; an age characterized by challenges to traditional religious beliefs. These challenges have opened a dialogue between the world's great religions largely because none seems to be making a particularly effective response to the secular challenge.

By the end of the 20th century, the statistical evidence clearly supported the view that religion had lost most of its social significance. Even so, it would be a mistake to underestimate organized Christianity -- the role of the established churches -- as a political force. A style of Christian theology has emerged in the past decade actively supportive of social justice for the underclass and other marginalized groups which is in contrast to the traditional roles of established churches as defenders of the status quo. In terms of the present model, it is hypothesized that significant differences will be found between the members of different church groups in regard to the role of the church in educational matters.

Educational Attainment. Open societies are those in which members are free to criticize those who hold power and exercise authority. Clearly the free society is one in which individuals are able to move from stratum to stratum on the basis of merit. The major mechanism facilitating such mobility is education, which has become a component of social status on a par with that of occupational prestige. Status groups have similar life styles with respect to their social, cultural and leisure activities. In societies such as Newfoundland where within living memory the social structure has changed from that of the folk society toward that more characteristic of the secular or urban society, traditional social elites have been largely superseded by a meritocracy. In other words, the ascribed criteria of age, sex and inherited wealth and position have given way to achievement criteria based on credentials or educational qualifications. Nevertheless, the transition period is one in which individuals can occupy inconsistent statuses. Thus, individuals with a high level of educational attainment normally associated with high status may be employed in poorly paid occupations which carry low prestige. Such inconsistencies can provide the motivating force leading to the attainment of excellence in many pursuits; or it can lead to the kind of resentment manifest as allegiance to radical or fringe groups. More often than not persons in inconsistent status situations support radical social change.

The most obvious reason that one would expect educational attainment to be associated with a propensity for changing a denominational educational system is that those who wish to transfer their achieved statuses to their children can only do so with the co-operation of the school authorities. If the prevailing educational system is perceived to be unsatisfactory in terms of inter-generational status transfer, the educationally advantaged will more than likely support educational change. The above model (Figure 1) posits an educational attainment/attitude toward educational change relationship based on an open society argument.

Children. While there may be no inherent reason for the parents of school children to be more interested in education than other adults, there can be little doubt that the school system will encroach more on their life space than it will on others. In this sense, they have more at stake or more to lose if the system fails to meet their needs and expectations. It becomes a worthwhile endeavour, then, to find out whether those with children in school, or those who will have children in school at a future date support the educational status quo or support change.

Religiosity. The above discussion of why religious affiliation could well affect attitudes toward educational governance focused on why membership in one church as opposed to another could make a difference. Yet the members of any single church may differ widely in their involvement, interest or participation in religious ritual and practice. Attendance may vary from the sporadic, once or twice a year, to the regular, once a week or more. The term given to this kind of involvement continuum -- high through low -- is religiosity. The model estimates will inform as to whether religiosity makes a difference or not over and above other effects such as religious affiliation.

## Attitudes

Educational Quality. Attitudes are assumed to have explanatory roles in models of social behaviour. They are relatively stable internal affective dispositions which can be used to explain a range of human actions and behaviours. In the present context it is believed that those who have predominantly favourable or positive attitudes regarding the quality of education provided by the provincial school system will support the organizational status quo; while those with less positive attitudes will be more likely to support change.

Attitude toward Denominationalism. It is assumed in the model that those with positive attitudes toward a denominational structure of education would vote to keep the system, while those with negative attitudes would vote to change the system. In other words, those not supporting continued church involvement in educational affairs, who believe that denominational schools are a source of community friction, and that their presence is unfair to children from families not belonging to an established denomination, would vote to change the system. In contrast those who do not believe it to be a good idea to establish jointly operated school boards, who prefer school bus systems operated on denominational lines, and who wish to preserve existing church rights in the educational sphere, would vote to keep the system as it currently stands.

Attitude toward Confessional Religious Education. If a person is religious it would be reasonable to assume that such a person would favour a denominational system of education. One would expect, therefore, that attitudes toward religious education and attitudes toward denominationalism would be highly co-related. Presumably the supporter of confessional religious education would prefer to appoint teachers who were religious persons rather than teachers with secular orientations; and, further, the religious education supporter would prefer teachers of the same religious affiliations as themselves. The religious person might be inclined, then, to object if their child were taught by a teacher of another religion no matter how highly qualified. If attitude toward religious education can be accurately measured, one would expect the supporter of religious education to favour the prevailing denominational structure of education and the ambivalent "supporter" of religious education to favour a more secular arrangement.

Parental Involvement. Provinces have the constitutional authority to deliver education in Canada. Most, however, delegate much of the day to day responsibility to school boards. School districts, then, tend to be the most important administrative units. Boards can employ administrative offices, expend operational moneys, hire and supervise teachers and monitor the operation of district schools. While in most Canadian jurisdictions Boards can raise money for educational purposes independently of government block grants; and while Boards have the right to build schools, such is not the case in Newfoundland where the first of these functions is under the control of government, and the second under the control of Denominational Education Councils. Thus, while school boards have quasi-corporate powers in Newfoundland these powers are more restricted than in most provinces.

There are two other important differences in the governing structure of Newfoundland education. In all other Provinces, school board members are 100 percent elected by public vote, whereas in Newfoundland one third of the Board members are appointed. Traditionally, most of the appointees have been males and most of them have been clergy. Second, boards are denominational boards; thus, with but few exceptions, the elected board members are members of the denomination in question. In Newfoundland, then, the church controls capital expenditures through the Denominational Education Councils; and operational revenues through their control of the school boards. Further, as pointed out by Submission #735 "this description belies the influence of the church in the management of the education system. The role of the Department is more toward funders than managers." Management of the system is largely in the hands of boards which are themselves extensions of the churches.

Despite the strengths of the system, the chief weakness seems to be that parents have little or no say in the operation of their children's schools. Whatever else democracy means, it refers to rights of group members to decide matters of mutual concern. The obvious fact about education is that it is not a mechanical activity that can be controlled by technicians -- by the directives of experts. The process of education is inherently indeterminate. At root it consists of the interaction between two actors, students and teachers. The interaction can be on a one on one basis or, more frequently, on a group basis. The social context of these interactions differ widely from classroom to classroom, from school to school; thus, flexibility in the form of decentralization of authority and maximization of the discretionary process of local schools is essential.

Schools do not operate in a social vacuum. Effective schools have to have supportive social contexts; that is, the social needs of the key role players -- students and teachers -- have to be met. Good schools, then, are community schools which first and foremost must have effective lines of communication between students and teachers; both of whom must have the support and encouragement of principals and parents. Opening up such lines of communication is the problem; a problem sometimes referred to as deinstitutionalizing the schools. Essentially the problem is one of information flow. In today's system teachers are beholden to principals, principals to superintendents and superintendents to school boards and ultimately to the Minister of Education. The flow of information and directives is largely top down. Deinstitutionalization not only involves information flow reversal, but also school unit sizes which are optimal for establishing a spirit of community and identification with the school. It is believed that the most effective means for achieving such goals is to increase grassroots participation in the planning of curriculum and the organization of instruction at the school and classroom levels. Grassroots efforts will be encouraged if there are no strings attached discretionary funding; that is, if the schools are the major budgetary and management units of the system. This also means more discretion given to parents and teachers in matters concerning staff recruitment and the appointment of principals and other administrative staff.

In the present case, the assumption is made that those respondents interested in local participation in educational policy making would be in favour of educational change. The rationale for this rests in the fact that at the present time parents have effectively no influence in the decision making process at the school level.

Governance

It is well known that Newfoundland has a system of education organized along denominational lines. The arrangement is controversial. Some people believe the system should remain essentially unchanged while others believe that it is time to switch to a nondenominational or secular system. This third component of the model -- the dependent or outcome variable -- is a dichotomy: whether to keep or change the present system. The purpose of the analysis is to find out whether the arguments underlying the selection of the presumed explanatory factors hold empirically.

## Variables

Information about the model variables is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Variables in the Personal Attribute Model of Educational System Change

| **Q'aire Item #** | **Variable Mnemonic** | **Variable Description** | **Type of Scale or Variable** | **# categories/ indicators** | **Directionality** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q35 | Age 1 | 18-24 years | dichotomous | two | 1 if 18-20 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | Age 2 | 25-34 years | dichotomous | two | 1 if 25-34 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | Age 3 | 35-44 years | dichotomous | two | 1 if 35-44 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | Age 4 | 45-54 years | dichotomous | two | 1 if 45-54 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | Age 5 | 55-64 years | dichotomous | two | 1 if 55-64 0 otherwise |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q35 | Age 6 | 65 and over | dichotomous | two | 1 if 65+ 0 otherwise |
| 042 | Gender | Male or female respondent | dichotomous | two | 1 if male, 2 if female |
| Q41 | Comm | Community of residence is a rural or urban | dichotomous | two | 1 = rural, 2 = urban |
| Q38 | REL1 | Roman Catholic | dichotomous | two | 1 if RC 0 otherwise |
| Q38 | REL2 | Anglican | dichotomous | two | 1 if Anglican 0 otherwise |
| Q38 | REL3 | United Church | dichotomous | two | 1 if UC 0 otherwise |
| Q38 | REL4 | Salvation Army | dichotomous | two | 1 if SA 0 otherwise |
| Q38 | REL5 | Pentecostal | dichotomous | two | 1 if Pentecostal 0 otherwise |
| Q38 | REL6 | Other | dichotomous | two | 1 if "other" 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | EDU1 | Elementary up to Grade 8 | dichotomous | two | 1 if elementary 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | EDU2 | Some high school | dichotomous | two | 1 if some HS 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | EDU3 | Completed high school | dichotomous | two | 1 if HS graduate 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | EDU4 | Vocational or technical school | dichotomous | two | 1 if Tech 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | EDU5 | Some university | dichotomous | two | 1 if some univ. 0 otherwise |
| Q35 | EDU6 | University graduation | dichotomous | two | 1 if univ. grad. 0 otherwise |
| Q1 & Q2 | CHILDREN | Children currently attending school or who will be attending in the future. | dichotomous | two | 1 if children 0 otherwise |
| Q39 & Q#0 | ROSITY | Religiosity | ordinal | six | hi scores, hi religiosity<br>lo scores, lo religiosity |
| Q5 | EDQUAL | School Quality Grade A=1, B=2 . . . Fail=5 | ordinal | five | A=1, Fail=5, lo score=high quality |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ATTDEN[1] | Attitude toward denominational schooling (Q12, Q15, Q17, Q20, Q22, Q23, Q25, Q29) | weighted linear composite | eight indicators | lo scores = support for denominational system, hi scores = support for non-denominational system |
| ATTREL[2] | Attitude toward religious education (Q11, Q13, Q16, Q27, Q28) | linear composite | five indicators | lo scores = secular orientation, hi scores = religious orientation |
| PARINV[3] | Parental involvement (Q30, Q31, Q32, Q33, Q34) | linear composite | five indicators | lo scores = less say in decision making, hi scores = more say. |

[1] Alpha reliability = .678
[2] Alpha reliability = .658
[3] Alpha reliability = .758

## Results

The findings are reported in Table 2. The estimates are standardized partial regression coefficients. T-values and their level of significance are also presented. It is worth noting that in this analysis all t-values greater than 2.0 were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. Equations 1 through 4 identify the predictors of (i) perceptions of educational quality (EDQUAL), (ii) attitudes toward denominational schooling (ATTDEN), (iii) attitudes towards confessional religious education or religious doctrine in the schools (ATTREL), and (iv) attitudes toward parental involvement in educational decision-making. Equation 5 addresses the fundamental question addressed by this study: What personal factors account for some people wishing to change the denominational system of provincial education, while others wish to keep the system in place relatively unchanged? The findings are discussed below equation by equation under five headings. The focus in each subsection will be on the direct effects of predictor variables (factors) on the outcome or criterion variable. It is noteworthy, however, that the outcome variables in equations 1 through 4 are intervening variables in equation 5. See Figure 1. This means that some of the exogenous variables could have important indirect effects on the criterion variable in equation 5 (CHANGE). Thus, a sixth subheading is included in this "results" section designed to interpret equation 5 in terms of the indirect and total effects of exogenous variables on the outcome variable, CHANGE.

### Educational Quality (EDQUAL)

Question 5 on the interview schedule read as follows: "Students are often given the grades A, B, C, D, or Fail to show the quality of their work. If the schools in your community were graded in the same way, what grade would you give them?"

Table 2. Estimates for Equations in the Personal Attribute Model of Educational System Change

| Independent Variables | Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EDQUAL | | | ATTDEN | | | ATTREL | | | PARINV | | | CHANGE | | |
| | Beta | t | sig | Beta | t | Sig | Beta | t | Sig | Beta | t | Sig | Beta | t | Sig |
| AGE1 | .087 | 1.784 | .075 | -.107 | -2.393 | .017 | -.056 | -1.223 | .221 | .082 | 1.678 | .094 | .019 | .453 | .651 |
| AGE2 | .058 | .906 | .365 | .030 | .516 | .606 | -.193 | -3.249 | .001 | .092 | 1.452 | .147 | .042 | .772 | .440 |
| AGE3 | .072 | 1.099 | .272 | .059 | .995 | .320 | -.153 | -2.509 | .012 | .009 | .139 | .889 | .059 | 1.054 | .292 |
| AGE4 | .066 | 1.329 | .184 | .018 | .402 | .688 | -.063 | -1.345 | .179 | .024 | .485 | .628 | .058 | 1.360 | .174 |
| AGE5 | -.014 | -.322 | .748 | .001 | .037 | .971 | -.032 | -.788 | .431 | .049 | 1.147 | .251 | .089 | 2.408 | .016 |
| GENDER | -.029 | -.899 | .369 | -.054 | -1.836 | .067 | .005 | .182 | .855 | .018 | .548 | .584 | -.073 | -2.640 | .008 |
| COMM | .094 | 2.819 | .005 | .057 | 1.872 | .061 | -.097 | -3.084 | .002 | -.028 | -.822 | .411 | -.018 | -.630 | .529 |
| ROSITY | -.053 | -1.607 | .108 | -.152 | -5.100 | .001 | .129 | 4.212 | .001 | -.036 | -1.084 | .278 | -.074 | -2.588 | .010 |
| CHILDREN | -.091 | -2.305 | .021 | -.065 | -1.824 | .068 | .021 | .577 | .564 | -.002 | -.052 | .959 | -.022 | -.646 | .518 |
| REL2 | .007 | .197 | .844 | .099 | 3.025 | .003 | -.177 | -5.276 | .001 | -.108 | -3.019 | .003 | .144 | 4.601 | .001 |
| REL3 | -.015 | -.425 | .671 | .098 | 3.020 | .003 | -.202 | -6.096 | .001 | -.101 | -2.846 | .004 | .133 | 4.279 | .001 |
| REL4 | -.001 | .038 | .970 | -.018 | -.570 | .569 | -.084 | -2.634 | .009 | -.116 | -3.387 | .001 | .028 | .962 | .336 |
| REL5 | -.050 | -1.511 | .131 | -.227 | -7.516 | .001 | .127 | 4.091 | .001 | -.099 | -2.998 | .003 | -.039 | -1.351 | .177 |
| REL6 | -.002 | -.072 | .943 | .137 | 4.509 | .001 | -.075 | -2.410 | .016 | .045 | 1.359 | .175 | .049 | 1.716 | .087 |
| EDU1 | -.068 | -1.481 | .139 | -.155 | -3.716 | .001 | .107 | 2.501 | .013 | .009 | .196 | .844 | -.023 | -.582 | .561 |
| EDU2 | -.054 | -1.169 | .243 | -.202 | -4.765 | .001 | .113 | 2.601 | .009 | -.038 | -.825 | .409 | -.060 | -1.500 | .134 |
| EDU3 | -.033 | -.704 | .481 | -.142 | -3.283 | .001 | .103 | 2.318 | .021 | .052 | 1.094 | .274 | -.026 | -.639 | .523 |
| EDU4 | .036 | .879 | .379 | -.070 | -1.861 | .063 | .057 | 1.455 | .146 | .013 | .323 | .747 | .038 | 1.077 | .282 |
| EDU5 | -.011 | -.281 | .778 | -.001 | -.032 | .975 | -.036 | -.990 | .322 | .036 | .935 | .350 | .038 | 1.142 | .253 |
| EDQUAL | | | | | | | | | | | | | .028 | 1.021 | .307 |
| ATTDEN | | | | | | | | | | | | | .259 | 7.624 | .001 |
| ATTREL | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.206 | -6.268 | .001 |
| PARINV | | | | | | | | | | | | | .002 | .087 | .931 |
| MULT.R | | .213 | | | .456 | | | .405 | | | .209 | | | .552 | |
| R-SQUARE | | .045 | | | .208 | | | .164 | | | .043 | | | .304 | |
| RESIDUAL | | .977 | | | .890 | | | .914 | | | .978 | | | .834 | |

Key to mnemonics: AGE1 = 1 if 18-20, 0 otherwise; AGE 2 = 1 if 25-34, 0 otherwise; AGE 3 = 1 if 35-44, 0 otherwise; AGE4 = 1 if 45-54, 0 otherwise; AGE5 = 1 if 55-64, 0 otherwise; GENDER = 1 if male, 2 if female; COMM = 1 if rural, 2 if urban; ROSITY = religiosity (high scores = high religiosity); CHILDREN = 1 if children attending school now or if children will be attending school in future, 0 otherwise; REL2 = 1 if Anglican, 0 otherwise; REL3 = 1 if United Church, 0 otherwise; REL4 = 1 if Salvation Army, 0 otherwise; REL5 = 1 if Pentecostal, 0 otherwise; REL6 = 1 if other religion, 0 otherwise; EDU1 = 1 if elementary school education, 0 otherwise; EDU2 = 1 if some high school, 0 otherwise; EDU3 = 1 if high school graduate, 0 otherwise; EDU4 = if vocational or technical school education, 0 otherwise; EDU5 = 1 if some university, 0 otherwise; EDQUAL = school quality grade (from A through Fail); ATTDEN = attitude toward denominational schooling (high scores represent support for non-denominational schooling); ATTREL = attitude toward religious education (high scores represent a strong religious orientation); PARINV = parental involvement (high scores indicate more parental say in educational matters).

The equation 1 estimates are reported under the EDQUAL heading in Table 2. The model fit in terms of R-square is a weak one. Only 4.5 percent of the variance in educational quality is accounted for by the 19 predictor variables. Only two of these predictors were statistically significant; namely, the community of residence (COMM) and whether the respondent had children in school or not, or would have in the future (CHILDREN). First, respondents from rural communities -- that is, communities with less than 5,000 people -- were significantly more satisfied with the quality of the schools and schooling than urban residents. Urban residents are those living in metropolitan areas or in census agglomerations as defined by Statistics Canada. Second, those with children in school were less satisfied with the quality of schooling than those without children in school.

Attitudes toward Denominational Schooling (ATTDEN)

Eight interview schedule items (questions 12, 15, 17, 20, 22, 23, 25, and 29) were identified as indicating attitudes toward denominational schooling. Two examples of these 8 items were the following:

12. Churches should no longer be involved in school boards.

23. Denominational schools create divisions between people within the same community.

The parameters of the 8 item scale or measurement model are shown in Figure 2. Some 9 of the 19 predictor variables were significantly related to the outcome variable (ATTDEN) in equation two. See the estimates under the ATTDEN heading in Table 2. Four of these were religious memberships; three were educational levels; and two included religiosity and age (AGE1).

Figure 2. Measure Model of the Attitude toward Denominational Schooling[1]

ATTDEN

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| .504 | .634 | .534 | .633 | .498 | .550 | .522 | .555 |
| Q12 | Q15 | Q17 | Q20 | Q22 | Q23 | Q25 | Q29 |
| .864 | .773 | .854 | .774 | .867 | .835 | .853 | .831 |

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[1] Alpha reliability = .678

It is useful to note that age, religion and education consisted of blocks of variables. Each variable in a block -- for example, AGE1 in a block of six variables ranging from AGE1 through AGE6 -- was coded as a dichotomy or dummy variable. In analysis of covariance designs structured within the constraints of the general linear model, dummy variables are often components of blocks of variables. In these designs model estimation calls for the elimination of one dummy variable per block in order to meet the assumption of linear independence for the remaining predictors. This constrains the omitted category to zero; hence, it becomes in effect the point of reference for the interpretation of the parameters of the included set of dummy variables in the block. This is explained with reference to specific examples below.

The recommended practice is to eliminate the variable in the block which in the judgement of the analyst offers the most meaningful interpretation. In the religious membership block, for example, the Roman Catholic group was omitted. Roman Catholics constitute the largest church group in Newfoundland. In the educational level block the group with the highest educational level, the university graduates, was omitted. In the age category the oldest age group, those 65 and older, was omitted. The interpretation of the results for each religious membership group will be with reference to the Roman Catholics; for each educational level with reference to university graduates; and for each age category with reference to the members of the oldest group.

With reference to Roman Catholics, and in terms of attitudes toward denominationalism, Anglicans, United Church members and the category "other" (the members of other religions or those with no religion) were significantly more supportive of a non-denominational or secular orientation to schooling. In contrast, and again with reference to Roman Catholics, Pentecostal Church members were significantly more supportive of the prevailing denominational structure. Educational level was also a factor in equation 2. While, overall, religious membership was the most powerful factor accounting for attitudes toward denominational schooling, educational level was second in terms of effect magnitude. Compared to the reference group category of university graduates, those in educational groups 1, 2 and 3 (EDU1, EDU2, EDU3) were significantly more supportive of the educational status quo. In other words, over and above the effects of religious memberships and other exogenous variables, those with elementary schooling, some high school or high school graduation, were more conservative than university graduates in terms of their attitudes toward denominational schooling. Those with technical or vocational college educations (EDU4) or with some university (EDU5) were not significantly different than the university graduate category with respect to denominational attitudes.

In terms of effect parameter magnitude the religiosity variable ranked second, behind REL5(Pentecostal membership), insofar as the ATTDEN equation was concerned. In effect, the degree of devoutness as indicated by church attendance operated over and above religious membership as a predictor of denominational attitudes. The more devout the more positive the attitude toward denominational principles of education. The respondents who were the most recent products of the educational system were not strong supporters of the denominational system. In fact, those aged 18 through 24 were significantly more likely to support non-denominational emphases than their reference group, those over the age of 64.

In the presence of the factors identified and discussed above, gender, community membership (urban or rural), and whether respondents had children in school or not were not significant. The fit of the model given models of this type, and given the design of the study, was satisfactory. Some 20 percent of the variance in attitude towards denominational schooling was accounted for largely by religious membership, educational level and religiosity.

Attitudes toward Confessional Religious Education (ATTREL)

The ATTREL variable was constructed as a weighted additive linear composite using the principal component method -- as was the ATTDEN variable of equation 2. There were five indicators; namely, the interview schedule questions, Q11, Q13, Q16, Q27, and Q28. Examples of the indicators follow:

11. School boards should have the right to refuse to hire teachers if they are not of the board's religion.

13. Children should be taught in school on the beliefs only of their own religion.

The ATTREL measurement model structural parameters are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Measurement Model of Attitude toward Confessional Religious Education[1]

ATTREL

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| .658 | .649 | .775 | .496 | .658 |
| Q11 | Q13 | Q16 | Q27 | Q28 |
| .753 | .760 | .632 | .710 | .584 |

---

[1] Alpha reliability = .658

Equation 3 estimates are shown in Table 2 under the heading ATTREL. The religious membership variables along with religiosity constituted the most powerful set of predictors. Thus, when compared to Roman Catholics, the Anglicans, United Church members, Salvation Army adherents and the "other" category were significantly less supportive of a confessional-type religious education. In contrast, but as expected on the basis of both theory and the equation 2 estimates, the Pentecostalists were significantly more supportive of confessional-type religious education than the Roman Catholics. Once again, religiosity was a predictor of attitude toward confessional religious education in that the greater the religiosity, the greater the support for the confessional orientation. Age, too, played a role in the equation. Compared to the oldest age group those in the 25-34 and 35-44 year old age groups were far more likely to advocate a secular position with regard to religious education. Finally, a note must be made of the effects of community residence. Those living in rural communities, other things equal, were more supportive of a confessional religious education orientation than those living in urban centres.

Again, the model provided a satisfactory fit to the data. Some 16 percent of the variance was explained. The results supported the conventional wisdom as based on prior research and as presented in the above discussion of the "arguments". The Churches were split on the issue. Pentecostalists and Catholics tended to support confessional-type religious education while the other churches and "other" groups were opposed. Those with high educational levels and those in the younger age groups were also opposed. When all these factors were taken into account, neither gender nor whether the respondents had children in school or not made any difference.

### Parental Involvement (PARINV)

Arguably, parents have had little real direct influence on the operation of the Province's schools. Not surprisingly, then, the Royal Commission was interested in gauging the extent of parental interest in schooling and school policy formulation. Equation 4 was designed, therefore, to try to identify the antecedents of respondent perceptions of parental involvement in educational decision making. Questions 30 through 34 on the interview schedule were used as the indicators of a parental involvement linear composite. The parameters of the PARINV measurement model are presented in Figure 4. Typical indicators included:

Figure 4. Measurement Model of Parent Involvement in Educational Decision-Making[1]

PARINV

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| .719 | .700 | .677 | .709 | .757 |
| Q30 | Q31 | Q32 | Q33 | Q34 |
| .694 | .714 | .736 | .706 | .653 |

---

[1] Alpha reliability = .758

Q30. Should parents have more say, less say or about the same say as now in the appointment of teachers?

Q33. Should parents have more say, less say or about the same as now in what subjects are offered?

While the fit of the PARINV model was not strong -- only a little over 4 percent of the variance was accounted for -- the findings were interesting. All religious groups wanted some say in educational matters but the Roman Catholics wanted the most say. Another way of expressing the findings verbally would be to state that all other religious groups wanted less say in school-level policy making than the Roman Catholics. Evidently Catholics in particular believe that they have too little input into the educational decision-making process.

### Support for Keeping or Changing the Denominational System of Education (CHANGE)

In the last equation, equation 5, the criterion variable was coded as follows: Keep the denominational system = 1, Change to a non-denominational school system = 2; thus, creating a dummy variable. Note that in absolute terms 36.2 percent were in favour of the status quo; that is, keeping the existing denominational system. Some 55.1 percent were in favour of changing the system; that is, supported change to a non-denominational system. Another 8.7 percent of the respondents were undecided. In terms of "valid" percent; that is, in terms of only those who expressed an opinion one way or another, 39.6 percent favoured keeping the present system, while 60.4 percent favoured changing the system.

What factors account for a preference for change? The results are presented in the CHANGE column of Table 2. Note first, that of all the equations the CHANGE equation had the best fit. Some 30 percent of the variance was accounted for largely by 7 of the 23 predictor variables. Two predictors were of overwhelming importance. First, those whose attitudes were favourable toward a non-denominational schooling structure strongly supported change. Second, those who supported a confessional type religious education program were strongly opposed to change. Five other predictors were significant. Compared to Roman Catholics the Anglicans and United Church members favoured change. Interestingly enough, the Pentecostalists held the same view toward change as the Roman Catholic majority. Compared to the elderly group, those aged 55-64 were in favour of change, while those with high religiosity scores were opposed. Finally, there was a gender effect. Women respondents were less supportive of change then male respondents.

In the last analysis the community of residence (whether urban or rural), whether the respondents rated schooling quality high or low, and whether respondents wanted more or less parental involvement in schooling did not matter. Attitudes toward denominational schooling and religious education, religiosity and religious memberships were the key factors. In fact, it would seem that a single concept, that of secularization, would go a good distance toward explaining the data. Before examining these findings in the light of secularization, however, it would be prudent to see whether some variables in equation 5 that may have had nonsignificant direct effects, had significant indirect effects.

### Direct, Indirect and Total Effects

The model of educational system change discussed thus far is one in which only direct effect parameters were considered. But, in fact, the model was specified in such a way that exogenous variables were mediated by four attitude variables. See Figure 1. Thus, an exogenous variable can affect an outcome variable both directly and indirectly via the mediating variables. It is possible, for example, for the direct effect of an exogenous variable on the outcome variable to be negligible, while the indirect effects for the same variable to be substantial. For over a decade the decomposition of effects has been a standard technique of data analysis. The decomposition of effects for the change model is presented in Table 3.

Consider the effect of REL5 (membership in the Pentecostal Church or not) on CHANGE (support for changing the denominational system or not). The Pearson correlation coefficient between REL5 and CHANGE is -.209, a statistically significant relationship indicating that Pentecostalists do not support change. When the effect of REL5 on CHANGE is examined after taking the other 22 variables simultaneously into account, it is found that the standardized partial beta coefficient is -.036, which is not statistically significant. But REL5 affects CHANGE via EDQUAL, ATTDEN, ATTREL and PARINV. In other words, some of the effect of REL5 on CHANGE is mediated by these four intervening variables. These indirect effects can be estimated; and when added to the direct effect, can be used as a measure of the total effect of the independent variable on the outcome. In the present example, the indirect effect of REL5 on CHANGE was -.087 giving a total effect of -.126, which is statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level. See Table 3. Without examining the indirect effects of REL5 on CHANGE the analyst would have concluded erroneously that after partialling out the effects of other predictors the REL5 effect on CHANGE was not statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis that Pentecostalists are opposed to changing the denominational system would have been rejected. In fact, however, this is not the case. When the indirect affects are taken into account it is readily shown that the total effect of Pentecostal membership on support for denominational change is significant and negative; Pentecostalists are opposed to change.

In fact, there were eight exogenous variables that had neglible direct effects on sentiments affecting change, but which when indirect effects were considered turned out to be significant. The total effects t-values in Table 3 which were significant but which had nonsignificant direct affects were starred. Three were age variables indicating that compared to the reference groups those in the younger age groups were in favour of change. Three were education variables showing clearly that the less well-educated groups were against educational system change. Two were religious memberships. Of these, those with Pentecostal affiliation were dealt with above. The other group was the miscellaneous "other" religion the members of which were in favour of change.

Table 3. Correlations, Direct Effects, Indirect Effects, Total Effects and T-Values for the Effects of Independent Variables on Public Support for Changing the Denominational System.

| Independent Variables | Correlation (r) | Direct Effect | t-value[1] | Indirect Effect | Total Effect | t-value[2] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AGE1[3] | -.036 | -.019 | .453 | -.013 | .006 | .183 |
| AGE2 | .004 | .042 | .772 | .049 | .092 | 2.911* |
| AGE3 | .042 | .059 | 1.054 | .087 | .108 | 3.437* |
| AGE4 | .000 | .058 | 1.360 | .020 | .078 | 2.470* |
| AGE5 | .044 | .089 | 2.408 | .007 | .095 | 3.026 |
| GENDER | -.118 | -.073 | -2.640 | -.016 | -.089 | -2.827 |
| COMM | .082 | -.018 | -.630 | .037 | .019 | .607 |
| ROSITY | -.181 | -.074 | -2.588 | -.068 | -.141 | 4.518 |
| CHLDN | -.017 | -.0219 | -.646 | -.024 | -.046 | 1.452 |
| REL2 | .149 | .144 | 4.601 | .062 | .206 | 6.657 |
| REL3 | .152 | .133 | 4.279 | .066 | .200 | 6.387 |
| REL4 | -.028 | .028 | .962 | .012 | .041 | 1.297 |
| REL5 | -.209 | -.039 | -1.351 | -.087 | -.126 | -4.017* |
| REL6 | .098 | .049 | 1.716 | .051 | .100 | 3.187* |
| EDU1 | -.062 | -.023 | -.582 | -.064 | -.087 | -2.770* |
| EDU2 | -.106 | -.060 | -1.500 | -.077 | -.138 | -4.397* |
| EDU3 | -.041 | -.026 | -.639 | -.059 | -.085 | -2.700* |
| EDU4 | .082 | .038 | 1.077 | -.029 | .009 | .300 |
| EDU5 | .097 | .038 | 1.142 | .007 | .044 | 1.408 |

[1] t-value for direct effects only. A $t \leq 2.0$ is significant at the $p \leq .05$ level.

[2] t-value for total effects. The t- distribution for total effect parameters is still unknown. It is not known, for example, whether the ratio of the estimates to its standard error follows the classical t-distribution. Recent research findings based on boot strap estimation show that in large random samples such as one we used in this analysis (N = 1001) the distribution of the estimator is close to that assumed by the classical method. The t-values for the total effects coefficients, then, were calculated using the classical approach.

[3] See Table 2 for a key to the mnemonics.

* Significant t-values for the total effects of specified relationships which had direct effects which were not statistically significant.

## Discussion

The question of whether to keep or change Newfoundland's denominational system of education is a controversial one at the present time. The issue has been the focus of several public opinion polls - Warren (1978, 1983), Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (1986), Strong and Crocker (1989); it has been a constraining factor in several Government sponsored reports on education -- Report of the Small Schools Study Project, (1987) Report of the Task Force on Educational Finance, (1989) Task Force on Mathematics and Science Education (1989); it has been the hidden agenda behind several reports on school district boundaries -- Roebothan, (1987) Treslan, (1988, 1991) and Verge, (1989); and has generated numerous scholarly publications dealing with denominational educational rights most of which are listed in the monograph edited by McKim (1988).

The present study was designed to address the question: Why do some Newfoundlanders wish to change the prevailing system of denominational system while others would prefer to keep the system? A personal attribute model of denominational change was formulated and estimated in order to shed some empirical or factual light on the matter.

### Item #1: The Age Factor

Compared to the elderly group, those aged 65 and over, the younger age groups -- those in the 25-34, 35-44 and 45-54 year old age groups -- were in favour of changing the system. The near elderly, those aged 55-64 were no different in their orientation toward change than the elderly. These findings unambiguously support the hypothesis that "the elderly and near elderly tend to be more . . . traditional in their outlook than younger and middle-aged adults."

### Item #2: General Differences

There was a modest gender effect on preferences for changing the system in favour of males. In other words, female respondents, other things equal, were more likely than male respondents to prefer to keep the denominational system. No explanation is offered for this finding.

### Item #3: The Community of Residence Argument

Secularization is an urban phenomenon. Thus, one is led to believe that urban residents will be more secular in their outlook than rural residents; and that this can be expected to be translated into urban support for change. Such, however was not the case. The zero-order relationship between community of residence and change supported the argument, but when controlling for other factors, the relationship effectively disappeared. One might reasonably conclude that community of residence, whether urban or rural, is a proxy for something else -- probably religious orientation. Thus, controlling for religious orientation through variables such as religious membership, religiosity, and religious attitude as was done in the present model, resulted in a negligible relationship between community of residence and change.

### Item #4: Religious Affiliation

Religious membership constituted the most powerful block of variables in the entire model. Compared to the church with the largest number of adherents -- the Roman Catholic Church -- three groups in the block were much more supportive of change. These were the Anglicans, the United Church members and a category called "other". The "other" category included members of religious groups not recognized as "founding denominations" for educational purposes, as well as those with no religious affiliation. In contrast, and again compared to Roman Catholics, the members of the Pentecostal Church were far more supportive of the prevailing system of education. In terms of descriptive statistics 53 percent of the Roman Catholics preferred to keep the denominational system compared to 82 percent of the Pentecostals. The Anglican, United Church and "other" groups had 27 percent, 23 percent, and 17 percent support for keeping the denominational system respectively.

### Item #5: The Educational Attainment Argument

Two arguments were grounded in the belief that in Newfoundland, within living memory, what was predominantly a folk society centred on the inshore and Grand Banks fisheries, logging and subsistence agriculture, has given way to an urban society. The first held that powerful social changes involve a transition period in which while the characteristics of one system may be giving way, the emergence of the structural elements of the other may be ambiguous. Thus, some individuals caught in the transition may be marginalized in that their statuses such as education may be inconsistent with their other statuses such as occupational prestige and earnings. It was held that such individuals would be likely to support change movements. The second argument concerned the problem facing the emergent elites -- the so-called meritocracy who hold positions on the basis of educational achievements and credentials -- namely, that of status transfer from one generation to the next. Again, it was held that the benefitters of the social change would prefer to see education under the control of the new elites, themselves, rather than the old; hence, would support system change. The findings unambiguously supported the educational attainment argument. Compared to the group of respondents holding university degrees, those in the less well-educated groups -- those with elementary schooling, those with some high school, and those with high school graduation -- were far more likely to prefer keeping the existing system. Those with vocational or technical college education, and those with some university training were no different in their orientation to change than the university graduates category. In terms of the descriptive statics 47 percent of those with elementary schooling, 50 percent of those with some high school and 43 percent of those who completed high school preferred to keep the system; while less than thirty percent of those in the vocational/technical college, some university and university graduate categories (29, 23 and 28 percent respectively) preferred to keep the system.

### Item #6: The Stakeholder Argument

While all adults have an interest in schooling, few would doubt that the parents of children currently in school have the biggest stake in the quality of schooling provided; and most would probably agree that those who will have children in school in the future will also have a powerful interest in the quality of schooling. Neither of these groups are likely to accept a decline in quality education. It was interesting, therefore, to find that in terms of change having children in school made no difference. Forty-one percent of those with children in school preferred to keep the system while 38 percent of those who did not have children in school preferred to keep the system -- a non-significant difference.

### Item #7: Religiosity

The religiosity argument worked. Over and above religious membership, religious involvement accounted for propensity to change. The lower the religiosity the greater the support for change. Only 27 percent of those who attend church every week supported change; but, then, only 34 percent attend church every week.

### Item #8: The Educational Quality Argument

While it was argued that those who rated the system highly might be most likely to wish to keep the system unchanged, the argument did not receive empirical support. In the presence of other factors the relationship between perceived quality of education and preference for change was neglible.

### Item #9: Attitudes toward Denominationalism

Of all the individual predictors in the model -- there were 23 of them -- this was the most important. Only one other factor, that of attitude toward religious education, came close. Those with positive attitudes toward denominational were strong supporters of keeping the present system; while those with negative attitudes were equally strong in supporting change.

Item #10: Attitude toward Confessional Religious Education

This was the second most powerful predictor. What are the chances that those with positive attitudes towards confessional religious education do not wish to keep the denominational system of education; or, the inverse, that those with negative attitudes wish to change the system? The answer to questions of this kind is known by statisticians as the level of significance. Obviously, analysts wish to minimize errors of judgment; therefore, the tradition has developed that a level of significance of at least 5 percent be used as the criterion. In other words, the analyst is willing to reject the thesis of no difference -- that is, of no relationship -- only if the chance of being wrong is less than one in twenty, or less than 5 percent. In the present instance, however, the chance of being wrong, even when taking into account all 22 of the other factors in the equation, is less than one in a thousand. While there is still a chance of being wrong, there are extremely long odds against it. It is worth noting, then that only 21 percent of those wishing to change the system of education agreed with the proposition that "children should be taught in school on the beliefs of only their own religion" and only 39 percent of those wishing to keep the system agreed with the same proposition. In other words, in absolute terms it is a minority of the population (plus or minus 3 percent) who support confessional religious education, and a small minority at that. Of all the respondents, 29 percent favoured confessional religious education, 71 percent were opposed.

Item #11: The Parental Control Argument

Three scales were constructed and used in the personal attribute model of educational system change. The one with the most desirable psychometric properties was parental involvement (See Figure 4). The thesis was posited that those respondents most in favour of educational change would be the most supportive of enhanced parental participation in educational system decision making at the level of the school. Such was not the case. Other things (in the model) equal, there was no relationship between preference for parental involvement and support for change.

## Conclusion

This study focused on the estimation of a personal attribute model of support for educational system change. More specifically, it addressed the question: What accounts for some Newfoundlanders supporting educational change from a denominationally controlled delivery system to a non denominationally controlled system, while others wish to keep the system unchanged? To answer this question within the framework provided by the Royal Commission on Education public opinion poll of September, 1991, eleven arguments were formulated. Four turned out to be beliefs which had negligible foundation in fact. They can, therefore, be dismissed as having little explanatory or predictive value.

The first of these invalid arguments concerns community of residence. It is the most difficult one to dismiss. Community of residence was a dichotomous construct. Respondents were classified as being either rural residents or urban residents. The simple bivariate relationship between urban-rural residence and support for non-denominational educational structures was, as predicted, a significant relationship in favour of urban dwellers; that is, urban respondents were more in favour of changing denominational education than rural respondents. When the residence effect was estimated taking the other predictors in the equation into account, however, the relationship proved to be negligible. Evidently, rural-urban residence was a proxy for something else. In the present case it was probably a proxy for religious involvement.

The remaining invalid factors are less difficult to dismiss. The stakeholder argument that the parents of children in school or the parents of children not in school yet, but who would be later were no more likely to favour change than other respondents. Similarly, those who rated the quality of schooling more highly than others were also no more likely to favour change than anyone else. Finally, those who would have liked greater opportunity for parental decision making in schooling matters were also no more likely than anyone else to favour change.

Seven arguments were supported or validated by the research. Four of these -- and by far the most important in terms of effect magnitude -- were quasi religious arguments. Thus, religious membership was important with three groups -- Anglicans, United Church and "other" -- who were more in favour of change than Catholics; and one group, Pentecostals, were more favourable toward keeping the status quo than the Catholics. One other group, the Salvation Army members, held a position vis-a-vis change essentially the same as that of the Roman Catholic majority. It is noteworthy that degree of religious involvement or religiosity was a factor operating to account for change over and above religious membership. The greater the religiosity, the greater the resistance to change.

By far the two most powerful quasi-religious arguments as measured by the magnitude of their effect parameters were attitudes toward denominational schooling and attitudes toward confessional religious education. There was no ambiguity about both these findings. Those positively oriented toward the denominational principle, and those believing that the schools should be used to promote the dogmas of a particular church were strongly in favour of keeping the prevailing educational delivery system in place. By the same token there were those who were just as negatively oriented toward denominational schooling and confessional religious education; and as a consequence, they were strong advocates of change to a non-denominational system of public education.

Three other factors were also validated; namely, gender, age and educational attainment. Gender differences were statistically significant but of modest substantive significance. The effect parameter was small. Evidently, for reasons which are essentially unknown, women respondents were less supportive of change than male respondents. Age and educational factors, while not as powerful overall as the religious attitude/membership arguments, were still important. Older respondents, those over the age of 54, were more conservative -- less supportive of change -- than younger respondents; and the better educated respondents -- those with post-secondary education -- were generally in favour of change compared to those with a high school education or less.

Much of this discussion about factors influencing change can be incorporated under the heading of secularization. All the evidence generated by the above described analysis points to the conclusion that Newfoundland society is undergoing substantial change from what some have called a folk society to a more secular society. The process is one in which religion -- religious dogma, religious practice, and religious institutions themselves -- are losing social significance. The two major causes are identified as urbanization and industrialization.

Urbanization had occurred in most provinces of Canada by the 1930's, if by occurring is meant urban growth exceeding rural growth. In this sense, Newfoundland, 1991, is still a rural society -- over 50 percent of the population live outside metropolitan areas and census agglomerations. While it is often claimed that urbanization is characterized by a loss of primary relationships or face to face interaction as found in the typical extended family this is questionable. It is probably correct to claim, however, that most social relationships in urban contexts are secondary -- secondary in the sense that most will be transitory and connected with work place groupings such as trade union memberships which have value systems and mores which differ substantially from those in the more traditional folk society.

Industrialization is associated with urbanization. It is associated with the development of capitalism and free market economies, rapid economic growth, and the mechanization of production. Its major characteristics include: (i) disappearance of a subsistence economy; (ii) the growth of universal literacy; (iii) development of party politics and the enfranchisement of all adults; hence, grass roots participation in political processes; (iv) the application of scientific invention and discovery to all spheres of life; but especially production processes; and (v) the emergence of theoretical knowledge as the source of innovation and public policy formulation.

In keeping with these structural changes to contemporary society secularization is associated with (i) the ending of state support for religion; (ii) the end of confessional religious education in schools; (iii) the ending of religious tests for holding public office, or for holding teaching positions, or for holding certain civic rights; (iv) an end to the censorship or control of literature in the name of safeguarding religion; or, alternatively censorship of scientific or other intellectual activities; and (v) freedom to deviate from religious dogmas and traditional religious ethics. Perhaps the most singular characteristic of secularism is that even most religious believers in secular societies accept the legitimacy of the aforementioned characteristics.

The public opinion poll data support the view that Newfoundland society is undergoing rapid social change in a secular direction. Seventy seven percent of the sample expressed the belief that there should be a single school system for everyone regardless of their religion. A majority of the Pentecostals (53 percent), the most traditional of all church members in Newfoundland, agreed with this statement. Only 18 percent of the sample (49 percent of the Pentecostals) agreed with the position that it is best for children to go to separate schools according to their religion. There was majority support only by the Pentecostals (60 percent) for the position that the differences among the Churches justify having separate denominational schools. Eighty-five percent of the sample believed that if Churches want to operate schools they should help pay the costs. No religious group had a clear majority of adherents supporting the separate boards for separate denominations.

Only 28 percent of the sample supported confessional religious education as indicated by the question: Children should be taught in school on the beliefs only of their own religion. And only 26 percent said they would object if a child of theirs was taught religion by a qualified teacher of another denomination. As implied by question 11 on the interview schedule, school boards should not have the right to insist on religious orthodoxy as a criterion governing teacher employment. In fact, only 19 percent of the sample agreed with the view that school boards should have the right to refuse to hire teachers if they are not of the board's religion. But should teachers have the right to deviate from religious ethics? Apparently not. Eighty-five percent of all respondents believed that teachers have a responsibility to show a commitment to religious values and standards.

Responses to questions described in the previous two paragraphs are overwhelmingly congruent with a secularist outlook on the part of Newfoundlanders. There is no evidence that Newfoundlanders are looking backwards. There is every evidence that they are accepting of change and that change includes the secularization of public education.

## A Final Word

Policy makers are elected or appointed to decide how to allocate society's scarce resources. Their task is doubly difficult during periods when the resources are in absolute decline as at the present time. While it may ease their lot to know that there is a majority in favour of some policy governing resource allocation, the fact is there are very few salient issues on which a clear majority exists. Even when it does it should be recognized that resource allocation in a stagnant or near stagnant economy is a zero-sum process where the gain in one policy area must necessarily be accompanied by a loss in other areas.

Thus, in many circumstances, whether a policy is popular or not is irrelevant. What matters is whether it is rationally and morally justified. The majority view in other words, may not be the right view.

On most policy issues, then, there are important minority group claims. Each group will press its case in hope that the issue will be solved in its favour. Governments, then, have to attend to a great many sectional claims. It is morally bound to do so; but, more important, it must be seen to be doing so fairly in order to gain the co-operation required to stay in power. This is not say that government should act merely on the basis of the findings from polls such as the one analyzed in this report. Governments yielding to every gust of popular opinion would soon lose the respect and confidence of the governed.

What the present study shows is that Newfoundland is embarked on an inexorable course of change -- change characterized by a secular orientation. This change adversely affects traditional elites -- what social change does not? -- most of whom have stoically adjusted to it. Morally, the change would seem to be for the better embracing as it does the principles of democracy, individual freedom, equality and respect for persons. The findings indicate that most Newfoundlanders support the changes that are occurring and that for most of them the change includes the promotion of a secularized schooling system.

## Technical Note:

Technically, two features of the report are worth noting. First, a classical test theory approach was used to construct selected weighted, linear, additive composite variables. The method used was principal component analysis. A modern test theory approach would have called for item response theory measurement modelling or dual scaling. Both would have generated more reliable constructs and probably generated better fitting structural equation models. The writer doubts, however, whether the improvements in measurement would have led to interpretations different from the one presented in the report. For the writer to have taken this direction would have cost more and held up the writing of the report.

Second, the five-structural equations were estimated using the ordinary least squares estimator. Since the criterion variable CHANGE in equation #5 was a binary variable the results are effectively the same as those from a two group multiple discriminant function analysis. Nevertheless, it is often recommended that in equations with binary dependent variables a probit (or logit) analysis should be used -- one's using maximum likelihood estimation. The aficionado should note, however, that when the mean response range for the binary dependent variable is between .3 and .7 (as it was in the present instance) that the least squares estimates and maximum likelihood estimates will be roughly the same. Thus, no apologies are necessary for using the least squares approach.

It is usually stated in the introductory statistical texts that binary variables -- Catholic or not, treatment group or not, senior citizen or not -- are nominal variables; hence, constitute the lowest level of measurement. In fact, this is false. In the present case, respondents were asked if they wished to keep or change the denominational system. Keep was coded 1 and change was coded 2. This generated a "mean" or average score of 1.604 which means that 60.4 percent of the sample respondents opted to change the system. In other words, binary variables are proportions or probabilities. They have a meaningful metric. As such, they have all the mathematical properties of interval scales; that is, measurements are made on a scale of equal units such as height in centimetres or time in seconds. The estimation of probabilities or conditional probability functions is a major contribution of the social sciences to measurement theory -- probably the only one. It means that binary classifications are free from the constraints identified in just about every introductory text in measurement with nominal level variables; hence, can be treated as interval scales in their own right.

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